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ABSTRACT

Designed for school-age child care staff training, this package of materials aims to (1) increase understanding of the developmental needs of school-age children between 5 and 12 years of age; (2) provide information on developing safe, supportive, and enriching programs for children during the hours they are not in school; and (3) involve staff in activities designed to apply new information and enhance skills. The package contains 40 short papers divided among four training modules each containing some or all of the following: a list of general references, a discussion guide, a set of activities, and a list of further readings. Focusing on the school-age child, Module 1 includes units on the latchkey child, developmental needs of children, and the stress of childhood. Concerning the school-age child care leader, Module 2 provides units focusing on the leader, on working with children, and the curriculum. Module 3 centers on the family and includes units on the American family, parent-community relations, and parent participation in school-age child care. Module 4, in dealing with administration, describes the administrator, how to manage the program, and day-to-day program operation. The training package may be used alone or in conjunction with a supplementary half-inch videotape consisting of observations of children, leaders and programs, and interviews with parents and administrators. (RH)

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SCHOOL-AGE CHILD CARE TRAINING PACKAGE

THE COUNCIL FOR CHILDREN
CHARLOTTE, NORTH CAROLINA

PS 016320

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SCHOOL-AGE CHILD CARE TRAINING PACKAGE

THE COUNCIL FOR CHILDREN
CHARLOTTE, NORTH CAROLINA

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Introduction to the Training Package

The Charlotte-Mecklenburg School-Age Child Care Project Training Package is intended to involve SACC staff in activities, some of which include observations of school-age children, as well as readings and papers related to the latchkey phenomenon.

The activities were selected to further the understanding of developmental needs of children ages 5 to 12 years and to provide background and data for developing a supportive, enriching environment for those hours when children are not in school or under the supervision of their parents or guardians.

The Training Package contains four modules and is designed to be used as a study kit. There are carefully arranged sequences of studies, discussion, and activity assignments. Each module contains three units preceded by introductory remarks and instructions followed by discussion guides and activities to introduce topics related to unit themes.

The Training Package can be used effectively by individuals and/or groups.

Module One: The School-Age Child

Objectives:

1. To develop understandings of the developmental needs of children aged 5 to 12 years old.

2. To gain insight into the latchkey phenomenon and the effects of self-care on the lives of school-age children.

3. To gain increased knowledge of the changes that take place in school-age children and of the social, psychological and physical influences that affect them.

4. To examine the varied programs that are being developed in response to school-age child care needs.

5. To examine the stressors of childhood and the impact of current family patterns.

6. To identify curriculum components necessary for matching program activities to developmental needs of school-age children.

Module One Pre-Test

Multiple Choice Items:

1. The term "latchkey" emerged:
   A. During the 1950's after the launching of Sputnik
   B. During the eighteenth century and was related to lifting a door latch
   C. In the 1940's to describe children who took care of themselves while their fathers were at war and their mothers were at work
   D. Both B and C

2. The dramatic jump in the number of children with working mothers is attributed to:
   A. High incidence of separation and divorce which produced single parent households
   B. Mobility of today's society
   C. Economic trends which have led to two-paycheck families
   D. Both A and C

3. It is difficult to provide an exact statistic on the number of latchkey children in the U.S.A. because:
   A. Reported figures reflect local samples which differ in demographic characteristics to different regions of the country
   B. Confusion over what ages should be included in the study of school-age child care needs
   C Only A
   D. Both A and B

4. Parents believe children are capable of caring for themselves:
   A. Between 5 and 6 years of age
   B. Between 9 and 10 years of age
   C. Between 11 and 12 years of age
   D. None of the above

5. The most common after-school care arrangement for Charlotte/ Mecklenburg children in the sixth grade is:
   A. Parent care
   B. Self-Care
   C. Care by relatives or friends
   D. Day care centers

6. It has been projected that by 1990 there will be a large increase in the number of latchkey children. It is estimated to become:
   A. Over 3 million
   B. Over 6 million
   C. Over 8 million
   D. None of the above

7. The first research studies on latchkey children appeared in the 1970's and were primarily concerned with:
   A. The effects of latchkey arrangements on children
   B. Alternative arrangements for children's care
   C. The issue of maternal employment
   D. The advantages and disadvantages of being a latchkey child

8. Fifth grade girls who were under supervised care tended to (according to a study by Woods, 1972):
   A. Be more self-reliant than those in self-care
   B. Have lower achievement scores than those in self-care
   C. Perform higher on intellectual tests than those in self-care
   D. Both A and C

9. Research to date concludes the single-most important factor is how well children adjust to self-care to be:
   A. Socio-economic status
   B. The birth ordinal position (whether first or second born)
   C. The age of the parents
   D. The environmental context

10. Major factor(s) in perpetuating the latchkey phenomenon is/are:
   A. Expense of child care and lack of transportation
   B. The education level of the parent
   C. The age of the parent
   D. All of the above

True/False Statements:

1. ___ School-age children tend to develop attitudes and values similar to those of people they encounter in their daily lives.

2. ___ Children spend more time with their families than they spend in school.

3. ___ When children are cared for in the schools they attend with the teachers they have had all day in after-school programs few, if any, problems arise.

4. ___ Staff in day care centers are as familar with school-age children as they are with preschoolers.

5. ___ The span of years between 11 and 12 seems to be the magic age when parents believe children are capable of fending for themselves.

6. ___ School-age children in their social behavior are independent and capable.

7. ___ Children can be viewed as minature adults and their thinking and understanding are quite similar.

8. ___ The child's physical development is entirely a result of genetic inheritance.

9. ___ Many school-age children feel self-conscious and worried about their bodies.

10. ___ Children who develop a sense of inferiority are pushy and will try anything.

Matching:

1. ___ Psycho-Social Development

2. ___ Cooperative planning and solving opportunities are available

3. --- Erik Erikson

4. ___ Concrete operations

5. ___ Jean Piaget

6. ___ Children with special needs

7. ___ Five through seven years

A. Children in this stage of cognitive development can take the viewpoint of others

B. Children in this age range play together readily despite sexes

C. Children in this age range want to be together in groups, teams, and clubs

D. Children will develop a sense of industry or inferiority depending on how this developmental crisis is resolved

E. Children dressed in miniture adult costumes and allowed to wear make-up

F. A cognitive developmental theorist who directed his studies to ways children think and seek meaning

G. The "matching" curriculum in a school-age child care program

8. ___ "Age of Preparation"	H. Lack of trained staff and fears of liability contribute to a critical lack of adequate services for this school-age population
9. ___ The "Adultified" child	I. A time when children are hurried into premature responsibilities and growing up too fast, too soon
10. ___ Ten through twelve years	J. A developmental theorist who looks at the child's psycho-social development

Identify the following:

1. Self-esteem
2. Premature responsibilities
3. Nurturing system
4. Latchkey children
5. Ambivalence of parents
6. Extended day programs
7. "Block" parents
8. Warm lines
9. "I'm In Charge" programs
10. Partnership models

Unit One: The Latchkey Child

Introduction/Instructions

Children grow and develop in a variety of ways. Their development during the school years is largely a continuation of earlier growth patterns and changes. The outcomes of this period of life will serve in turn as foundations for further change and entrance into adolescence and adulthood.

During the school-age years children become markedly competent in motor skills, in learning and thinking, and in social skills and interactions with others. In essence there is a transition from the dependency of the preschool years to a sense of self-sufficiency and capability.

The experiences of children are influenced by many things: family structure, siblings, a wider range of authority figures,and new friends and peer relationships. Their needs reflect the dynamics of the times. With the new realities of family life many children can no longer depend on an adult being at home whenschool is not in session. The purpose of this unit is to examine the need for school-age child care and to compare the effectsof self-care with participation in high quality programs. In addition, model programs for supplying school-age child care are described.

To work through the unit:

- Read Paper 1 focusing on the individual needs for school-age child care arrangements.
- Complete Activity 1.
- Read Paper 2 to determine research findings related to latchkey children.
- Complete Activity 2.
- Read Paper 3 and 4.
- Complete Activity 3.
- Work through the questions in Discussion Guide A with your study group.
- Develop a short presentation on the Latchkey Phenomenon that you could present to a group of parents, a church or civic club, or to a similar group or organization.

Paper 1

The Need

The Emergence of Latchkey Children

The term "latchkey" emerged during the eighteenth century and referred to the method of lifting the door latch to gain access into homes. The term "latchkey" was revived in the 1940s to describe children who took care of themselves while their fathers were away at war and their mothers entered the labor market in massive numbers (Zucker, 1944). During the 1970s and 1980s dramatic increases in the numbers of latchkey children reemerged as a result of changes in the American family. A faltering economy and the women's movement led to an increase in dual-career marriages. The number of working mothers rose (Grossman, 1981; Johnson & Waldman, 1981). Increasing numbers separations and divorces produced single parent households and left many women as sole wage earners for their families. Age-segregated housing, smaller families, and less cohesion in small towns and urban neighborhoods have also led to larger numbers of latchkey children (Galambos & Garbarino, 1983).

Difficulties in Obtaining Realistic Counts

As a result of these social changes the phenomenon of latchkey children has become a nationwide concern. However, it is difficult to determine the exact number of latchkey children in our nation. The United States Department of Commerce (1976) etimated that 1.6 million or 13% of the nation's children between the ages of 7 and 13 are without adult supervision before or after school. A more recent estimate of latchkey children issued by the United States Department of Labor (1982) puts the number of children 13 years of age and under who care for themselves when not in school at 7 million.

Still other reports on the numbers of latchkey children vary by the samples that have been studied. A survey of 953 employees of three major companies in Washington, D.C. reported that the most common child care arrangement was child self-care (Emlen, 1982). In that study 34% of the parents said they used self-care for as many as 17 hours per week. McMurray and Kazanjian (1982) found 19% of the 211 poor working class families they questioned reported that their children were left unsupervised during all or part of the day, with over one-fifth of the parents having used this arrangement when their children were seven years of age or younger. In contrast, studies of the wealthiest suburbs in Washington, D. C. revealed that latchkey children comprised between 11 and 12% of the school population and in Washington, D.C. proper, 33% of elementary school children are reported to be in latchkey situations (Long & Long, 1983a, 1983b). A 1984 study of a random sample of 1,806 mostly white middle-income families in Charlotte, North Carolina (the sample was representative of the racial make-up of the urban area and included 56% white and 35% black), found that 35% of the parents had latchkey children between the ages of 5 and 14 in self-care or in the charge of an older sibling (Latchkey Study Task Force, 1984).

There are a number of reasons as to why it is difficult to establish an exact count of the number of latchkey children in our nation. First, local statistics reflect different demographic characteristics unique to the samples studied in different regions of the country. Charlotte, North Carolina is demographically different from Washington, D. C., for example, which in turn is different from rural Pennsylvania and surburban Washington, D.C. Second, there is no consensus among researchers on the grade levels that should be used in the study of latchkey children. A variety of school grades and age ranges have been researched. While nine year olds (or fourth graders) are most commonly studied, many researchers lump together different grades. Grades range from kindergarten through ninth grades, and still others group preschoolers with school-age children for study. Fourteen year olds are very different from kindergarten children and thus the relevance of these findings to all latchkey youngsters is further questioned Third, some parents report that their children are cared for by an older brother or sister, yet technically these children fall into the latchkey category since in many cases the older brother or sister is only a year or two older than the cared-for sibling (McMurray and Kazanjian, 1982). Fourth, the negative stigma associated with latchkey children results in parents' underreporting of child self-care (Long & Long, 1983b).

Addressing the Need

The numbers of latchkey children can be expected to rise as more mothers into the labor force. Emphasis on child care for preschoolers has resulted in few programs for school-age children. Advocacy groups are beginning to explore ways that communities can direct the schoolager's energies into positive channels through appropriate programs.

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Paper 2

Research Findings

The term "latchkey children" refers to unsupervised youngsters who care for themselves before or after school, on weekends, and during holidays while their parents work. They commonly carry housekeys to let themselves in and out of their homes and some, against the advice of experts, wear housekeys on chains around their necks.

The phenomenon of latchkey children has become a nationwide concern. The United States Department of Commerce (1976) estimates that 1.6 million or 13% of the nation's children between the ages of 7 and 13 are without adult supervision before or after school. Others claim that parents underreport the extent of self-care among school-age children because of embarrassment or guilt (Long & Long, 1983a).

It has been projected that by 1990 there may be as many as 6 million latchkey children in this country, if there are not already, due to the influx of more mothers into the labor force (Turkington, 1983). Increasing numbers of latchkey children have roused educators, politicians, and people from all walks of life concerned with the welfare of youth. Researchers have also begun to study problems associated with latchkey children.

Summary of Research

Controversy exists in the research literature over whether or not the latchkey child status is a problem. Some studies cite benefits for children in self-care. In their literature review

Stroman and Duff (1982), for example, suggest that latchkey children, because of early reponsibilities, become more indpendent, self-reliant, and resourceful than peers who are constantly supervised. Other scientifically-controlled studies find that school-aged children of working mothers have less stereotyped sex-roles than children of mothers who stay at home (Deridiarian & Snipper, 1979; Gold & Andres, 1978a; Romer & Cherry, 1974). Maternal employment also encourages peer interaction, independence, and responsibility (Zambrama, Hurst, & Hite, 1979). This early independence training leads children to participate more in household duties than children of nonemployed mothers. Still other research has found that latchkey children learn earlier than they otherwise might to master self-help skills, take on responsibility, and solve problems (Kieffer, 1981).

Thomas and Lynette Long (1981) interviewed children attending an all black parochial school in Washington, D.C.: 53 children in self-care at home after school and 32 children under adult supervision. Every latchkey child enrolled in grades one through six was studied. Positive as well as negative outcomes were reported. On the positive side, children in self-care were better informed of procedures for dealing with their own physical well-being than children who spent after-school hours under the care of siblings. In contrast, children under continual adult supervision depended heavily on the parent/adult figure to respond to any emergency that might arise.

Positive benefits for parents have also been reported. A recent survey among readers of Working Mothers magazine reported that a whopping 82% were either very or somewhat satisfied with their latchkey arrangements (Langway, Abramson, & Foote, 1981). Despite parents reporting positive benefits that their children receive from the latchkey experience, these reports may reflect inaccurate judgments or may be made to ease a parent's guilty feelings. The negative aspects and potential harmful effects of latchkey arrangements cannot be dismissed (Sparks, 1983; Stroman & Duff, 1982).

On the negative side, Long and Long (1981) claim that more than 30% (15 children) of the children they studied who were left in self-care reported nightmares and high fear levels (e.g., fear of noises, dark). Most dealt with their fears by hiding. None of the children in the adult supervised group were classified in the high-fear category.

To determine the long-term effects of these fears, Long and Long (1983b) studied 1,000 current and former latchkey children and their parents. They found that 50% of those adults who were former latchkey children said they were still afraid to be alone, and suffered from "latchkey syndrome." These adults, most of whom were black, had a residue from their latchkey experience that was characterized by loneliness, boredom, resentment toward parents, increased fears, social isolation, and a trend toward occupations oriented around things instead of people. Long surmised that a lifetime of fear may be the legacy for latchkey children. They may have sublimated unexplained fears that they suffered as children---fears that, never confronted, have never gone away (Turkington, 1983). Earlier warnings were sounded by

Woods (1972), who reported that unsupervised girls of low-income working mothers in her sample of black children had more problems of personality adjustment and academic achievement.

Despite the fact that disadvantages of latchkey children were cited by Long and Long (1981) and Woods (1972), it should be pointed out that the subjects in both samples were all living in inner-city black ghetto areas. On the other hand, in studies of white middle-class children in rural or affluent suburban settings, these disadvantages were not found. From a survey of 77 parents of fifth and seventh graders in a rural school district, for example, Galambos and Garbarino (1983) found that latchkey children performed no differently in school than did non-latchkey children, nor were they more fearful of being alone. Other studies of similar children and environments that are characterized as relatively safe such as in Montreal, Canada (Gold & Andreas, 1978a; 1978b) and wealthy suburbs of Washington, D.C. (Long & Long, 1983b) showed no significant differences in academic and emotional adjustment or achievement between latchkey and nonlatchkey children.

Research to date concludes that the environmental context may be the most important factor in how well latchkey children adjust to a self-care arrangement (Galambos & Garbarino, 1983). Whether or not latchkey children are in self-care in relatively safe, crime-free settings (such as rural or suburban areas) or in environments where the potential for crime is higher (such as urban areas) can make a difference in reported fear levels.

Nevertheless, parents are ambivalent about latchkey arrangements and worry that their children will become more involved sexually, have more drug problems, and participate in crime, even though there are no solid data to support the need for such concerns. Long and Long (1983b), for example, interviewed 100 parents who reported they were reluctant to leave their children alone or to admit to having made such arrangements. Some parents said that while they routinely left their children unattended, they would never admit this to their own parents and tried to keep the reality of their child's self-care unknown. Those parents choosing self-care for their chidren did so with concern, guilt, ambivalence, and uncertainty.

Martha Stewart (1981), however, found that parental dissatisfaction in leaving children unsupervised was not as cut and dried as Long and Long imply. She surveyed parents of 675 third and fifth grade students in an elementary school in Summerville, South Carolina. Parents who had children in self-care arrangements responded to questions regarding the structure of these arrangements and their satisfaction with self-care arrangements. Stewart found that several factors were linked to satisfaction: (a) whether or not the use of self-care was voluntary or involuntary, (b) whether the child was a boy or girl, and (c) the amount of time the child spent weekly in self-care.

A study conducted by Sandra Sparks (1983) in an elementary school in Charlotte, North Carolina, also showed the ambivalence and uneasiness parents of latchkey children can experience. She surveyed 213 parents in grades kindergarten through six and found that 87% of these parents said their children were not in day care centers or special programs after school.

Reasons for latchkey arrangements ranged from transportation problems (N=15), the expense of child care (N=45), and other causes (N=49). Many of the "other" responses had a qualifying note indicating that they felt their children were old enough to stay alone. Several parents mentioned that they arrived home within an hour after their child left school. Despite the fact that the majority of these parents saw no need for before- or after-school care, 51% of the parents were nevertheless concerned about leaving their children at home alone after school.

Sparks' findings of parental ambivalence were supported by Thomas Long (1983) in a recent speech. He admitted that there are positives to being a latchkey child. However, he also said parents must decide if the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Most parents, according to Long, are ambivalent regarding latchkey arrangments. Although 95% of the parents studied by Long reported advantages to latchkey arrangements, most of them wanted their children to be adequately supervised and 50% worried about problems that might arise, such as accidents or break-ins.

The Charlotte-Mecklenburg Council for Children organized a task force to examine the latchkey phenomenon locally to determine needs of children for care before and after school and during school holidays and vacations. A randomly selected sample of parents of 1,806 children between the ages of 5 and 14 were surveyed (Latchkey Study Task Force, 1984). Parents were asked to complete a 27-item questionnaire designed to answer questions concerning current arrangements for before- and after-school care, holiday, weekend, and summer arrangements, and needs which were and were not currently being met.

It was found that fewer than 10% of the children had care needs met through planned programming. Consistent with other studies, the reporting of self-care was dependent upon the grade level of the child. Younger children (grades K-3) were found to be in self-care less frequently (13%) than older children (53%) (in grades 4-6). As in other studies, some children who routinely cared for themselves were reported as somewhat fearful or apprehensive when alone at home (23%). Fifty-one percent of all the responses denoting apprehension when left alone were made by parents of K-3 children, 42% were made by parents of 4-6 children, and 7% by parents of 7-9 children.

Parental ambivalence was also evidenced in this study. Although the majority of those parents who had made latchkey arrangements for their children were satisfied with their arrangements, 63% experienced concern over their youngsters staying home alone.

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Paper 3

Who's Minding the Children?

School-age children tend to develop attitudes and values similar to those of people they encounter in their daily lives. With increasing age children are more and more affected by the world outside their immediate families.

Although the families of school-age children play the major roles in their socialization and in their development of interests, studies indicate that peers, caregivers, and teachers take on significant importance during this period.

When the child's schedule is reviewed it becomes readily apparent that less time is spent with the family while more is spent in school, in recreation programs, and/or child care centers. Interactions with peers and adults outside the immediate family become increasingly important. To add to this change of focus the effects of the mass media (TV) and its influence upon the behavior of children cannot be minimized.

One thing is clear; there is no simple way to describe today's children and the ways they are cared for. The purpose of this paper is to explore the many options available to parents when they need care outside the home.

First, consider the changes in family living styles and structures. The rise of single-parent families, in most cases headed by females, has led to the need for child care at times when previously one of two parents might have been at home. It is significant that today over 60% of married couples report both spouses working. In 1985, 15 million children aged 6 to 13 (60%)

had mothers who worked outside the home. Changes in family ties and mobility within the population have produced isolated family groups who cannot call on grandparents or other relatives for emergency or other care arrangements. Even when one parent is in the home, the television has become a communication barrier and little contact is made with the child.

When parents do make arrangements we find the children in a variety of programs offered by a multitude of groups. In many instances schools offer Extended Day Programs and children are cared for by school staff in the schools they attend. There are both positives and negatives to this plan. Studies tell us that teachers are not necessarily the best choice as leaders for these programs due to fatigue and burnout. Equally important may be the need for the children to be physically apart from the schools they have attended for at least six hours daily. Most of these programs operate only during the school year leaving the parents with great concern for summer and holiday periods.

Day Care Centers which specialize in preschool education offer before and after school care and summer and holiday programming. Although they are licensed in most states and therefore meet some standards, most of their staff are not familiar with school-age children from a growth and developmental perspective. Children recognize these inadequacies and express dissatisfaction with programs that have not been planned especially for them. There are also many day care centers and family day care homes which are unlicensed and may provide sub-standard spaces.

Recreations Departments, Girl and Boy Scout Groups, YM and YWCA's, and other community groups offer specialized programming for school-age children. Usually the programs are for one or two times weekly and cannot serve as a daily option needed by many children. These groups have led the way in responding to the parents' plea for summer-time programming. When the fees are within are parents' range of payment some of the children are enrolled and experience enriching activities and events.

What happens when none of the aforementioned options are available? Research tells us that many children are in self-care or are cared for by a sibling one or two years older. The span of years between 11 and 12 seems to be the magic age when parents believe children are capable of fending for themselves. In a study of 1,806 families of school-age children in Charlotte, North Carolina (Latchkey Study Task Force, 1984), 886 children were found to be in parent care or self-care exclusively (no other form of care was used). Of this group, more children between the ages of 9 and 11 (53%) were left alone when compared to children between the ages of 5 and 8 (13%) or between the ages of 12 and 14 (34%). Consistent with other studies, reporting of self-care was dependent upon the grade level of the child.

Parent care was most common between kindergarten and fourth grades, while self-care was the most frequent child care arrangement between grades 5 and 9 with sixth graders having that arrangement most often. The frequency of parental care arrangements was most common in the lower grades while self-care was less frequent. Another notable trend was that self-care increased with higher grade levels until fifth grade where it became more common than parent care. Self-care reached a peak during sixth grade (at approximately ages 11 or 12) when parent care began to drop drastically and continued to decline thoughout the ninth grade.

These findings are consistent with other studies which find younger children aged 5 to 8 in self-care less frequently than older children.

Special efforts have been made to educate children to feel confident about dealing with situations that may arise when they are home alone. Entitled "I'm In Charge," and the like, these programs alert parents to potential dangers children in self-care face. Although the primary focus of most of these programs is "safety," critics have suggested that when children are left alone they are always at risk. Even though they know about emergency procedures they may or may not be able to apply them.

Recently developed "block" parent and designated phone number programs that are highly publicized report positive feedback as to their use. The calls increase immediately after school and most of the children have legitimate concerns or questions.

It seems obvious that both social trends and demographic trends have given rise to a more complex picture of school-age child care. Providing the right kind of care is a multifacted problem and one which requires a community-wide response. Advocacy groups and child-care networks continue to study child care needs and work to make more visible the options available to working parents to better provide for their children.

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Paper 4

Who's Providing School-Aged Child Care?

No single response to the latchkey phenomenon can be guaranteed to fill the needs of children and their families in every situation. Specific child care arrangements must be developed by each family, and communitities must provide a variety of resources based on their own needs and strengths.

Better programs and family support options can be made available when more detailed studies have been made of the need for adequate child care, of the effects of two-paycheck families and single parent homes, and when the impact of other societal factors upon the children of the 1980's is more clearly understood.

Helpful programs are being developed in the private and public sectors throughout the United States. Individuals and advocacy groups are working together to muster community resources to help bridge the ever-increasing gaps between needs and services. Some examples of existing programs are included here. These brief descriptions are of models and guides representing a variety of collaborative efforts among government, schools, parents, community agencies, business and industry, and advocacy groups.

Charlotte-Mecklenburg Models

Licensed Child Care Centers. There are licensed child care centers in Mecklenburg County which offer early morning, after-school, summer, school break, and workday care. Information on licensed center-based care is available from Child CareResources, Incorporated, Charlotte's child care information and referral service.

Charlotte Parks and Recreation Department. The Recreation Department provides a variety of leisure time activities for school-age children during the school year. Recreation centers are located throughout the city and activities in sports, arts and crafts, and specialized interests are available. In the summer, during holidays, and on weekends special programming is offered to school-age children on a full-day basis.

Family Day Care Homes. Private homes, where five or fewer children are kept for day care on a full-time or part-time basis, fall into this category. The homes are registered, but not licensed, by the state. The homes also must be registered with Mecklenburg County's Environmental Health Department. State officials have registered 359 family homes in Mecklenburg County (Spring, 1985), while about 200 are registered with the Mecklenburg County's Environmental Health Department.

Day Parent Services. Day Parent Services administers a network of family day care homes which provide full-day and after-school care. Providers operate as independent contractors. The agency recruits providers and children, ensures that each home is properly registered, collects fees and disburses payments, maintains records, and provides insurance, guidelines for child care, and back-up care for emergencies or illness. Day parents are carefully screened and their services are monitored for quality.

Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA). The YWCA offers an after-school program at the Alexander branch from 2-5pm during school months and full-time during the summer for children whose care is purchased by government funds. In addition, two YWCA after-school day camps are operated during the school year, and a "camp along" summer program is conducted during the summer. Fees for these programs are based on a sliding scale. Activities include arts and crafts, homework time, recreation, free time, and field trips.

Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA). In response to varying needs of individuals and the comunity the YMCA seeks to help all persons grow in spirit, mind, and body. Their commitment to meeting the needs of children and youth has given rise to several school-age child care programs. After-school programs are offered at the Johnston Memorial Branch and the Henry L. McCrorey Branch during the school year. The children are eligible for the Y's day camp program during the summer.

Safety Haven (Girl Scouts). The Girl Scout Council, Inc., and the Charlotte Mecklenburg Council for PTAs sponsor a county-wide "block parent" program designed to serve the needs of all children including latchkey children. The program provides emergency services and contacts for children. There are four phases of the program:

1. Location Selection: The location can be either business or residential. All people displaying the Safety Haven logo have been carefully screened. The screening process includes all persons over sixteen years of age.
2. Educational Information Program: Information on crime prevention for the children in sessions at their local schools.

3. Educational Information for Parents/Guardians/Caregivers: Information about latchkey needs and safety factors for parents and caregivers.

4. Public Awareness: An on-ongoing process for monitoring and informing the public about state laws and regulations related to children and the Safety Haven concept.

Contact - A - Friend (Latchkey) Kids Helpline. A special telephone service for children is offered by Contact-Charlotte Counseling Service. Designed to help elementary school-age children who are home alone, the program provides basic emotional support to troubled children, provides information on how to handle minor concerns/problems, and offers referrals when circumstances require additional expertise or assistance. Volunteers receive training for responding to children via telephone.

RCH Day Care (Mecklenburg Day Services, Inc.). Located in the Metro Center (Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools Center for Special Needs Children), the program is designed to provide before- and after- school services for the mentally retarded. Hours of service are from 7:00 am until 9:00 am and 2:00 pm until 5:30 pm. The program has a capacity of 30 children and has a waiting list. The program is fee-based and offers sliding scale options.

The Gethsemane Enrichment Program. The Gethsemane Enrichment Program is a non-profit organization in its eighth year of operation. The program evolved in response to the needs of children living in the Community Development neighborhood strategy areas. The Community Development Department of the City of Charlotte has designated nine economically depressed neighborhoods as " neighborhood strategy areas". Thirty percent

(30%) of Charlotte's minority population live in these nine ghetto areas. Substandard housing and a lack of social, recreational, and economic facilities distinguish the areas. Unemployment, low family income, alcoholism, drug addiction, prostitution, and crime are also typical of these depressed neighborhoods.

A needs assessment and a testing program implemented through the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools identified neighborhood children's deficiencies in the areas of reading and math. Also highlighting the needs of these children was a new retention policy which stated that students scoring below the twenty-fifth percentile on the California Achievement Test in grades three and six could not be promoted. Upon entry into the Gethsemane Enrichment Program, youths are screened to determine academic strengths and weaknesses. Interest inventories and self-concept assessments are also administered for indices of interest and personality characteristics.

A review of the child's academic record, made possible through cooperation with the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools, enables the Enrichment program to determine the children's academic needs immediately. Such comprehensive assessment enables appropriate program planning. Regular conference evaluations and follow-up procedures enhance the quality of the program.

Home Work Help is one component of the program, made necessary because of crowded space conditions and the absence of resource persons in the home. This component also emphasizes work study skills and habits. A cultural component seeks to

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broaden the limited experiences of the neighborhood children. In so doing, it encourages their participation in a variety of learning experiences, among which are excursions to the opera, drama, ice shows, museums, and dance recitals.

Today, the program serves 400 youths---ages 5 to 14---from the neighborhood strategy areas by providing academic support, counseling, career orientation, and cultural enrichment activities. During the school term, operational hours for the program are from 3:45 to 6:45 pm. Program sites are housed in schools and churches located within the neighborhood strategy areas. During the summer months, the program is in operation from 8:00 am to 1:15 pm.

A majority of the part-time staff are certified teachers who tutor during the program year. A Citizens Advisory Committee, comprised of professionals from educational institutions, helping agencies, and businesses of Charlotte, serve as a policy-making management body for the program.

After School Learning Centers (Chapter I Extended Day). The Charlotte-Mecklenburg School System through the ECIA Chapter I staff and Ad Hoc Program Planning Committee has designed an Extended Day Remediation Program (After-School Learning Centers). This program is a continuation of the pilot project implemented during the 1984-85 school year which was held at six school sites: Ashley Park, Hidden Valley, First Ward, Statesville Road, Oaklawn and Plaza Road.

Chapter I eligible students in grades K-6 are eligible for this program. Each site will serve 100 students. After-School

Learning Centers provide daily service (Monday through Friday) from school closing time until 5:30 pm.

The program will operate for 36 weeks and follow the regular school schedule.

The goal of the Extended Day Program is to improve achievement in basic skills by providing constructive and enjoyable after school activity. The program objectives are to provide supplementary individual and small group instruction in reading, writing, and mathematics,and to provide a variety of innovative, creative and exciting activities which enrich and extend the regular classroom instruction.

After-School Enrichment Program. Beginning in Fall, 1985, Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools opened after-school enrichment programs in 10 elementary schools. Children may enroll in the after-school program in the schools they attend or in other schools on their regular school bus route.

The programs are staffed by certified teachers and aides. Staff who teach during the regular school day are not eligible for after-school work. Staff development workshops are an integral part of the program.

Enrichment is a primary goal. Curriculum and activities are age-appropriate and include homework, outdoor play, stories, games, art, music, and field trips. Volunteers from the community, high schools and colleges contribute to the program.

School space is shared with the regular school day program. Large common areas such as the gym, media center and/or playground are used extensively.

Fees for 1985-86 are $20 per week. Children from eligible low-income working families may have care purchased by government funds.

Contact: Barbara Keelan, Coordinator
After-School Enrichment Program
Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools
P.O. Box 30035
Charlotte, NC 28230

The Key to Being on My Own. This handbook was written for children in latchkey arrangements before after school. It was written in response to parent requests received on a school-age child care survey done in May, 1983, at Ashley Park Elementary School in Charlotte, North Carolina. One hundred seventy-two parents responded on the survey that they would like a handbook addressing the needs of the latchkey child.

The handbook offers safety rules for students, tips for parents on things they can do to make the latchkey arrangement successful and 25 activities elementary children should be able to do on their own on the occasions they may need to be at home alone. The purpose of the handbook is to offer suggestions that may help make the latchkey experience as safe and happy as possible.

Handbooks were distributed to each family and were favorably received. Copies have been purchased by the Charlotte-Mecklenburg School System for distribution to school principals who will have the option of using it in their schools.

Contact: Sandy Sparks
Ashley Park Elementary School
3128 Belfast Dr.
Charlotte, North Carolina 28208

North Carolina Models

Annunciation School. The Annunciation Before- and After-School Care Program has been in operation since 1980. The program provides children in grades K-8 with a place and time for homework and enrichment activities (e.g., music instruction, foreign language, physical education). The mission of the program is to provide a Christian atmosphere for children. Annuciation serves approximately 78 children per month.

Contact: Peggy Faulkenberry, Director
Annunciation School
246 East Main St.
Havelock, NC 28532

Chapel Hill/Carrboro City Schools, North Carolina, After-School Care Program. The Chapel Hill/Carraboro City School System implemented an after-school child care program in 1979. Currently, all 6 of the school system's elementary schools operate an after-school program. Approximately 330 students in grades K - 6 are enrolled. Parents pay $60.00 per month for services, except during December ($40.00) and June ($20.00).

School-age child care is also offered on teacher work days and during the summer. There is no school-age child care on holidays or before school. All Chapel Hill/Carraboro after-school programs are classified as Level II sites by the State of North Carolina.

Mary E. Phillips Extended Day Magnet School, Raleigh, North Carolina:

> Mary E. Phillips is a public school which may legally serve all families in the Wake County area who need day care. While the Phillips inner-city district has only 58 children within its borders, 142 children from other

districts are brought to the school to participate in the extended day.

A typical day begins at 7 am when parents drop off their children on their way to work. From 7:30 to 8:45 the children eat breakfast and participate in art and media programs. The school day lasts from 8:45 to 2:30. After dismissal, the school offers programs in physical education, art, photography, game rooms, and outside activities. Students rotate through these various stations throughout the school year. The day ends at 6 pm when parents arrive to pick up their children.

The Phillips extended day program costs $72 per month per child. Although there is no sliding fee scale, about eleven families receive funding from state Social Services to meet the payments.

Source: Council for State Governments. (1982, October) When nobody's home: Programs to help the latch key child. _Backgrounder_, p.3.

Other Models

Phonefriend. Phonefriend is an after-school telephone helpline for children at home without adult supervision. It is a community service project sponsored and operated by the State College, Pa., Branch of the American Association of University Women in cooperation with the State College Women's Resource Center. PhoneFriend operates from 2:30 to 5:30 pm, Monday through Friday and from 9 am to 5:30 pm, on week days when there is no school because of teacher in-service or because of weather conditions. It serves approximately 4,500 elementary school age children in the communities of State College and Bellefonte, Pa.

The goals of PhoneFriend are (a) to create a helping network to provide information and support for children at home without adult supervision after school hours, (b) to help these children help themselves, and (c) to increase community awareness of the children's needs.

The program was developed to aid children in dealing with anxieties about being lonely, scared, bored, or rejected. The help-line averages 45 calls weekly. Volunteers are trained to listen and give support to children. Most callers solve their own "problems" or concerns after they share them with a supportive listener.

A PhoneFriend Replication Packet giving information and instruction on how to establish and operate a help-line for children is available.

Contact: Marilyn Keat
Public Relations Chairperson
AAUW State College Branch
P.O. Box 735
State College, PA. 16801

Federation Day Care Services. Federation Day Care Services provides school-age care for approximately 160 Philadelphia children ages 6-10 at the Paley Day Care Branch, Northern Hebrew Day Nursery Branch and extension sites. Day care in provided before and after school hours, full days on school holidays, vacation weeks and during the summer.

The program is social and recreational. It is developmental, geared to the needs of the children. The program model also takes into consideration such factors as the long day that children are in an academic setting prior to coming to the day care center, and the need that children in day care have for program variety during the year.

Senior citizen volunteers participate in the school-age program through their foster-grandparent program, which is administered jointly with the David Newman Senior Citizen Center.

Contact: Norman S. Finkel
Executive Director
Federation Day Care Services
Jamison Av. and Garth Rd.
Philadelphia, PA. 19116

Latch Key Child Development Program. This program is a day care service for school-age children ages 6-12 in the Hartford, Connecticut area. It is designed to develop the child's physical, emotional and social needs. The Latch Key Programs, which are held in schools, are run by and sponsored by branches of the YMCA. Currently the programs have an enrollment of almost 500 children.

The schedule is 7-9 am and 2:30- or 3:00-6:00 pm. Outside play, crafts, gym activities, board games, coloring and tutoring as well as field trips and nature walks are activities offered. Latch Key also takes part in the school child food program which supplies quality snacks and breakfasts. All programs are licensed through the State Department of Health.

The morning fee is $2.75 ($13.75 weekly) and the afternoon fee is $3.75 ($18.75 weekly). A weekly fee of $32.50 is charged for both sessions. Half days are about $1.00 extra. There is a 10% or a 20% discount for two children in the family. Sliding scale fees are available when need exists. Scholarships are also available. Low income families are subsidized by community development funds.

The programs operate on school vacation days and holidays. Towns share in Latch Key Programs by providing space, heat, playground and gym facilities, etc. Many towns also bus children to the programs.

Contact: Teresa Halligan
Metropolitan Latch Key Coordinator
Young Men's Christian Association
160 Jewell St.
Hartford, CN. 06103

Reston Children's Center. This center offers programs for children ages 2 to 12. Preschool children may participate in year-round full-day and half-day programs. School-age children may participate in full-day kindergarten, before/after public school programs at The Center and in Family Satellite Homes and summer camp. The Center also conducts in-service training for child care professionals, presents workshops at conferences, publishes written materials on a variety of topics (provider recruitment, employment, record keeping, children's recruitment, enrollment, etc.) and offers consulting sevices.

The Reston Children's Center is a private, non-profit, parent-owned cooperative child care center. Its two major goals are meeting the developmental needs of children and providing support systems for families. The Center is supported by tuition and fund raising events and guided by its parents in the form of an elected seven member Board of Directors. A professional staff of over 50 trained personnel is assisted by parent participation based on parent commitment to work several hours a year. Close communication with parents is maintained. Meals and snacks are served daily and special activities such as swimming lessons, gymnastics, field trips and programs, etc., are provided by local organizations.

Contact: Reston Children's Center
11825 Olde Crafts Dr.
Reston, Virginia 22091

Child Care Action Campaign. This campaign in New York City is a coalition of leaders from women's organization, experts in the child care field, representatives from magazines and the audio-visual media, and members from various business, professional and labor organizations. An executive committee ensures implementation of policies determined by the Board. The Board consists of 35 members and will eventually be increased to 50. It meets at least three times a year. A Leadership Council of 150 members meets twice a year. Its members are leaders who are concerned about the provision of child care services.

The Child Care Action Campaign has four major goals: (a) to alert the country to the problem and the need for child care services; (b) to prepare and disseminate information responsive to inquiries resulting from publicity; (c) to analyze existing services and identify gaps, and (d) to work directly with communities to stimulate the development of local information and referral centers, and of various services for children of families at all income levels.

Contact: Child Care Action Campaign
P.O. Box 313
New York, NY 10185

Home Base Child Care Program. Home-Based Child Care is a before- and after-school child care service for school- age children. It is an alternative for care which provides a safe, supervised, home environment. Organized by the Community Coordinated Child Care (4C) for Central Florida, a private non-profit United Way Member Agency, 4-C recruits individual providers who will offer care in their home. They assist the provider in certification requirements, in reimbursement for food costs, and make referrals to parents seeking care. In cooperation with the Orange County Public Schools and the Orlando Vocational Training Center they offer training classes for the Home Base Provider. They have established a Home Base network system and provide a resource library of books, games, and toys. Children, kindergarten through sixth grade enjoy play, and games, do homework under supervision, and participate in local youth programs and activities.

For further information contact:

Community Coordinated Child Care for Central Florida, Inc.
816 Broadway
Orlando, Florida 32803

Denver Program: In Denver, Colorado, a child care program was begun in 1979 in the schools by the Mile High Child Care Association, a non-profit agency that operates other day care centers. They rented empty classroom space at elementary schools for $2.00 per square foot.

The program's popularity popular with parents and school officials has led to its expansion Since public school enrollment has dropped approximately one-third over the past several years in Denver, school officials have been pleased to directly benefit from this child care program that uses the available space, helps defray operational costs for the schools and yet does not interfere with the regular school program. Source: Levine, J.A. & Seltzer, M. (1980, September). Why are these children staying after school? (And why are they so happy about it?). Redbook.

Block Mothers. Some communities use "block mothers" as child care providers. A mother in the neighborhood is designated to be responsible for checking on the children who are at home alone after school. The block mother may simply check on the children or may keep the children until the parents get home from work.

Block Mothers offer family day care in which children can be in a home-like atmosphere before and after school. Being located in the neighborhood allows children to play with schoolmates, develop new friendships with the provider's own children and others staying there, participate in neighborhood activities, and experience different aspects of family life. Source: Seltzer, M. Family day care and the school-age child, ERIC ED 192 901.

Extended Day Program, Arlington Public Schools, Virginia. This before- and after program offers enrichment activities for elementary age children whose parents are employed outside the home. The program is administered by the Arlington Public Schools through a Communities Activities Fund. The program began in 1969 and serves over 20 schools in the Arlington System. Program supervisors are in charge of each program and are assisted by aides. There is one adult for every 15 children (ages 6-12) and one adult for every 10 children (ages 4-5). The program has strong community support and an active parent organization. Fees are on a sliding scale and are based on income and size of family.

The program was initially begun for latchkey children. Three elementary principals worked independently to develop programs for their individual schools. Their efforts were supported by other school officials, teachers, clergy, PTA members, and other interested citizens. The next step was a study to denote the scope of unsupervised children. The study identified a large percentage of working mothers who were dissatisfied with their child care arrangements.

From the results of the study, the combined efforts of a Citizens' Committee, and the leadership of the three elementary principals and pilot program was initiated. Careful planning was conducted and criteria for programming and admission requirements were established.

Through the years the program has expanded and become most successful. The Citizen's Committee continues to give assistance in policy, funding, evaluation, and liaison between the community and school staff.

Contact: Extended Day Program
Arlington Public Schools
1426 North Quincy Schools
Arlington, Virginia 22207

KARE-4 Project. This project in Sioux Falls takes place in Boys' and Girls' Club Centers. The children are picked up by city buses and vans and taken to the centers for lessons in gymnastics, acrobatics, cooking, sports, drama, ceramics and guitar. This South Dakota program is unusual because it is the cooperative effort of four community agencies (Girls' Club, Boys' Club, YMCA, YWCA) and privately funded by the Gannett Foundation. Source: Scherer, M. (1982, May). The loneliness of the latchkey child. Instructor pp 40-41.

Community After School Program: This program in Norman, Oklahoma is held in the public schools. The schools in the community are not involved in the funding or administration of the program. Families pay $45.00 a month tuition and the rest of the funding comes from the United Way Agency. Source: Scherer, M. (1982, May). The loneliness of the latchkey child. Instructor p 40.

Harbor School-Aged Center. The Harbor School-Aged Center in New York is funded by city, state and federal funds. It offers a split schedule where children 6-10 have activities planned for them by a teacher, while students 11-14 have a short homeroom time with a teacher, then freely choose among activities. Source: Scherer, M. (1982, May). The loneliness of the latchkey child. Instructor p 41.

Family Day Care Check-In Project. Fairfax County School-Age Child Care Program, Fairfax, Virginia: This pilot project was designed to provide a safety-net for older elementary children and junior high school youth who are in self-care while their parents are working. Children and youth are assigned to a trained, neighborhood-based family day care home provider. There is a nominal fee. Parents negotiate a contract with the caregiver determining exactly what services they want for their child. Roles and responsibilities are clearly defined. Conferences are held with the parent, child, and provider to establish ground rules and patterns of supervision. This type program offers guidance, supervision, and the availability of a responsible adult, while allowing children to spend some time with their friends or in neighborhood-based activities.

Contact: Project Director
Family Day Care Check-In Project
Fairfax County Office For Children
10396 Democracy Lane
Fairfax, Virginia 22030

The School Age Childcare Project. The Living Center for Family Enrichment, a division of Family and Children Services of Kansas City, Missouri, has designed a comprehensive system for providing needed assistance to parents, corporations, child care providers and the community to deal with all aspects of school-age day care.

Plans are underway to provide new school-age child care programs for 5 to 12 year olds. The first year's focus is in the Kansas City, Missouri School District area with plans to expand to the metropolitan area in the second and third years. "I'm In Charge" programs teach self-care skills to children ten years and older, along with their parents. These are made available through The Living Center to families in Jackson, Clay and Platte Counties. A coalition of school-age child care providers has been formed for the purpose of promoting and extending high quality programs. Selected corporations are providing employees the opportunity to participate in parenting seminars, including a session on child care. Means of involving volunteers are being explored and a school-age child care community education strategy is being designed.

Contact: Joan Israelite
The Living Center
Family and Children Services
3217 Broadway, Suite 500
Kansas City, MO. 6411

Latch Key Cares for Kids. A Guide for a Successful Child Development Program: This manual is for anyone interested in starting a school-age latchkey child care program. Information is provided on how to start, operate and maintain this type of program. The author, Fred Stickney, addresses the issues of enrollment procedures, facilities and space requirements, staff training and development, program objectives and content, parent participation, program budget and evaluation. This book was written as an aid to day care directors, workers, parents, and agencies concerned with school-age child care.

Contact: Fred Stickney
1318 Rimer Dr.
Moraga, CA. 94556
(ERIC ED 225 689)

"I'm In Charge." Family and Children Services, Kansas City, Missouri This is a program of self-help skills for school-age children of working parents. Objectives include improving the safety of children, helping children to develop responsibility, and communication between parent and child. Facilitators are trained to teach self help skills to children and their parents. The Family and Children Services Agency trains volunteers who work with parents and their children in grades four through six. The intent of the program is to help families decide if self-care is appropriate and to provide quality child care techniques.

An accompanying film "Lord of the Locks" is available for use. It highlights the seriousness of self-care and the need for responsible decisions.

Printed Materials, facilitator training, and the film can be used for nominal fees.

Contact: Family and Children Services/The Living Center
3217 Broadway-Suite 500
Kansas City, MO 6411
Telephone: (816) 753-5280

General References

Module 1
Unit 1

Latchkey Study Task Force (1984). _Taking action for latchkey children_. Charlotte, NC: Council for Children.

North Carolina Advocacy Institute (1984). _The State of the Child in North Carolina_. Raleigh, NC: North Carolina Child Advocacy Institute.

Activities: Module 1 - Unit One

Module 1
Unit 1
Activity 1

You should spend at least 30 minutes considering these points. Arrange a meeting of your group to discuss Paper 1.

1. What are some of the factors involved in the emergence of latchkey children?
2. Why do you think it is so difficult to obtain realistic counts and the extent of the latchkey phenomenon?
3. Within the group personalize latchkey situations by describing children with whom you have come in contact who fall into the latchkey category.

Module 1
Unit 1
Activity 2

Focus on the major themes of research related to latchkey children.

1. Discuss the first wave of studies that were primarily concerned with the issue of maternal employment. Why is the research important to our understanding of current needs and problems related to child care arrangements?
2. What are the major factors perpetuating the latchkey phenomenon from the point of view of providers and parents?
3. What arrangements would parents make if they could provide the kind of care they would prefer?

Module 1
Unit 1
Activity 3

Arrange to interview several working parents to look into the need for some type of out-of-school care for children in grades K through 6. Use the following questionnaire.

1. What school does your child or children attend?

____

2. How many children do you have aged 5 - 12? ____________

3. Are the adults in your family out of the home during non-school hours?

___ Yes ___ No

4. If so, for what reasons? (check all that apply)

	Mother	Father	Other Adult
Working	______	______	__________
In School	______	______	__________
Community Activities	______	______	__________

5. Would a school-age child care program benefit your children?

___ Yes ___ No

6. If so, what are the ages of each child who would benefit?

_____ _____ _____

7. How many days/weeks would you expect your child or children to participate?

____

8. What time of day would your child or children leave the program?

____

9. When would care be needed? (check all that apply)

___ Before School
___ After School
___ School holidays and vacation
___ Summer
___ Other (please explain)

10. Please circle the amount you would be willing to pay for each child per day.

Care Before and After School	$1	$2	$3	$4	$5	$6	$7	$8	$9	$10
After School Care Only	$1	$2	$3	$4	$5	$6	$7	$8	$9	$10
Non-School Days Care	$1	$2	$3	$4	$5	$6	$7	$8	$9	$10

11. What organized activities during the after school hours is your child or children involved in now?

____

12. What would you like to see included in a school-age child care program?

____

13. If you are interested in a school-age child care program, please giveyour name and address so that we might send you further information.

Name ______________________ Phone ________________

Address ___________________________________ Zip __________

*Adapted from Parent Questionnaire developed by the Kansas City (MO.) School-Age Child Care Project of Family and Children Services of Kansas City, Inc. Used with permission.

Discussion Guide A

The Effects of Self Care Versus Quality School-Age Child Care

You should allow at least 30 minutes for this discussion. Activities 1 and 2 should help clarify what the research says about latchkey children and their families.

Bring your activity notes and have papers 1, 2, and 3 ready for reference. Focus the discussion on the following points. Make a note of any consensus view. Encourage your colleagues to express their opinions.

1. Consider what we know about Latchkey children. Discuss the need for more accurate data in this area.

2. Compare the many models of school-age child care. Discuss the strengths of several models. Explore the use of community resources for expansion potential.

3. Identify the relationship between self-care, academic achievement, and social adjustment. Compare your ideas with those of your colleagues. Make brief notes of the discussion and carry then forward to be part of Unit 2.

4. Pool information gained from your interviews with parents. What kinds of activities did parents want for their children in a school-age child care program? How does this compare with the existing school-age child care models both nationally and locally?

Further Readings

Module 1

Unit 1

Seligson, M. et al. (1983). *School-age child care, a policy report*. Wellesley, MASS: Wellesley College Center for Research on Women.

A publication written for readers who are in a position to act as initiators in the policy area. Useful for those who advise policy makers and who serve on advisory committees on child care and educational needs.

Latchkey Study Task Force (1984). *Taking action for latchkey children*. Charlotte, NC: Council for Children.

A report which includes a research survey of parents, children, and service providers in Mecklenburg County, N.C. addressing latchkey needs for children ages 5 to 12 years. Examples of model programs are included as well as research instruments and design. Useful for parents, employers, agencies, organizations, and concerned citizens who wish to address the needs of latchkey children in their community.

Unit Two: Developmental Needs of Children

Introduction/Instructions

Child development is a field of study where answers are sometimes ambiguous and theories often appear to be in conflict. When examining the developmental needs of school-age children the results point clearly to the differences in individual children. Unit Two deals with the child's physical, psycho-social, and cognitive development. Special attention is given to the importance of offering program activities that match the child's way of thinking and reasoning. In Piagetian terms, most school-age children have begun to think logically for the first time. Their thinking is concrete and there is rapid development in most areas of social cognition. Most of the time during this period growing and learning and behavior are in harmony with the child's experiences and environments. On the whole this is a stage of growth which is stable and quite satisfying.

But even in the best of circumstances children can experience problems in growing up. Temporary problems can arise which call for understanding and patience. Certain fears and anxieties can arise which need special consideration and may need professional help. Special attention is given to the school-age child care needs of handicapped children.

To work through the unit:

- Read Paper 5. Consider the total needs of children ages 5-12 years.
- Complete Activity 4.
- Read Paper 6 to gain background information necessary for preparing a quality program for school-age children.
- Complete Activity 5. Remember to make a detailed list for further references.
- Read Paper 7.
- Complete Activity 6. Consider Papers 5, 6, and 7 as you view the videotape.

Paper 5

Developmental Characteristics of School-Age Children

Throughout childhood there are vast changes in how children think and reason. By the age of two, magical explanations suffice for what children see and experience. Around the age of four trial and error play a significant part in determining how things work and the sense children make of their world. When children reach school-age they become much more sophisticated in their reasoning and can understand principles of basic science and arithmetic, solve problems logically, and understand implications of decisions.

Not only can we observe these amazing changes in cognitive development during these school-age years, but also in social behavior children become more independent and capable. They begin to focus on their relationships with family and peers and qualitative changes become evident. There is increased contact with other children and recognition that other individuals have ideas and points of view different from their own. Their communication skills with agemates increase in proficiency and they can anticipate shared rewards for cooperative endeavors. Sharing behavior increases and other forms of altruism emerge. Overall aggressive behavior decreases and modes of expression change.

Children begin to enjoy shared interests and to expect pleasure from this new form of interaction with friends. There is a sense of belonging and trust and new loyalities arise.

For the purpose of this paper children are viewed as special and unique. They are not miniature adults. And they think and understand the world differently than adults do. They learn from social experiences and their culture. They possess a genetic heritage that provides the potential for their growth. Nature and nurture in combination influence their development.

Physical Development

The child's physical development is not entirely a result of genetic inheritance. It is affected by a blend of diet, health care, and physical exercise. Physical development has a strong influence on personality and cognitive growth. The rate of growth is not as spectacular as in infancy and adolescence. Growth is slower and steadier, although some children do experience a burst of growth between the age of six and eight. Toward the end of middle childhood, as this period is sometimes called, children may look as if parts of their bodies are out of proportion. Some parts are growing faster than others and awkward appearances and movements may result. Many children will feel self-conscious or worried about their bodies. They will associate their size and body build with their ability to be successful or engage in certain sports or activities.

On the average, during middle childhood children will have fewer illnesses than in the preschool years. Immunization has helped to decrease the risk of childhood diseases. Problems continue to rise related to diet and additives in junk food. In fact, improper snacks can be one of the chief factors in poor nutrition and the quality of physical growth.

Psycho-Social Development

During the school-age years the child will develop a sense of industry as one of the components of individual personality. There is a new sense of need to use abilities that are self-satisfying as well as acceptable to society and the group. Being productive and recognized for contributions help the child learn to value work and cooperation. Ideally the child will develop a sense of industry without overreacting and becoming a conformist or thoughtless in actions and deeds. Erik Erikson, who has studied psycho-social development for many years, describes the counter theme of this stage of childhood as a sense of inferiority which impedes the child's ability to feel adequate and capable. Children who develop a sense of inferiority will stop trying and may feel unable to perform required tasks.

Cognitive Development

In Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development the period of concrete operations closely matches the school-age child. The child literally manipulates the environment by thinking and acting on objects and ideas. In the ages from five to seven the groundwork is laid for these mental operations through trial and error and imaginative play. After about the age of seven children begin to use a systematic approach to understanding the relationships between people and things. They can understand change and take the viewpoint of others. This new capability is related to a new degree of comprehension and use of social-relational terms. Children are able to understand the feelings of others and to function at a new level socially.

Summary

Growth and development in middle childhood in the physical, psycho-social, and cognitive domains is a result of the child's interaction with the environment. Children who come from warm, trusting homes will reach out for friendship with teachers and playmates. They will be more apt to manage themselves and share with others. They will be able to master the more formal skills of life and relate to peers according to the rules. Leaders and teachers who are planning programs and activities for the school-age child should carefully consider the developmental levels and needs of these children. A presentation of typical age-related behavior patterns and their implications for school-age child care programs can be found in the _YMCA School Age Child Care_ (1982) comprehensive program model notebook. The age level considerations are helpful in summarizing the developmental characteristics of this exciting stage of life.

Five through Seven

(Strong attachment to the home and family environment.)

* Do same things in same place but not always together
* Have short interest span
* Are aware mainly of self and own desires
* Prefer highly imaginative make-believe play
* Like to explore their expanding world
* Desire repetition of enjoyable experiences
* Are easily upset by change in routines or or environment
* Tend to persist in first responses to people and events
* Are learning to get along with one another, and to work and play in samll groups
* Play together readily despite sexes
* Are very dependent on adults for meeting physical and emotional needs
* Need patient understanding and close supervision

They respond affectionately to staff who look after their needs, who show interest in them, and who are fair and capable of humor and imagination. The character of the program leader is most important, not the leader's activity skills.

Seven through Ten

(Beginning to play together)

* Begin readiness for leaving home and parents (live away experience)
* Lengthening interest span
* Growing awareness of others and their wants
* Willing to share
* Desire acceptance from own age group
* Need close friendship with playmate
* Express selves freely in art forms and play
* Begin interest in competition related to one's standing in the group
* Growing desire for better performance in skills
* Develop interest in group games and activities
* Wants everyone to obey stated rules and regulations.
* Identify strongly with own sex and age group

They respond to staff similarly to the young age group, with exception that the activity skills of the program leaders are becoming important to them.

Ten through Twelve

(Group Stage)

* Strong desire for live-away experience
* Want to be together in groups, teams, and clubs
* Have longer interest span, patience to work for short-term goals
* Form cliques and friendships with own sex and age group
* Like to make, do, collect things
* Seek status through excellence in skills and knowledge of grown-up things
* Are fairly competitive in team and individual activities
* Enjoy being mischievous and daring
* Are becoming concerned with physical size and appearance
* Girls at upper age level develop interest in boys
* Boys and girls can work and socialize in programs where they share responsibility for planning

> They respond enthusiastically to staff who can understandand guide their tremendous energy and mischievousness. They tend to idolize the program leader who measures up to thistask. (p. 5-6; reprinted with permission)

Once again, staff should realize that these "typical behavior patterns" are generalizations. Remember that each child should be treated as a unique human being worthy of respect with personal dignity protected at all times.

References

YMCA of the USA, Program Resources. (1982). YMCA school-age child care, Rosemont, Illinois. Programming with children, pages 5-6.

McCandless, B. R., & Trotter, R. J. (1978). Children, behavior and development, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 3rd Ed.

Ambron, S. R. (1978). Child development, New York: Holt. Rinehart and Winston, 2nd Ed.

Strommen, E. A., McKinney, J. P., & Fitzgerald, H. E. (1983). Developmental psychology, the school-aged child, Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, Revised Ed.

Paper 6

Program Activities to Match Developmental Needs of Children

The purpose of this paper is to help leaders and teachers create an environment where children can be actively involved in a carefully planned program designed specifically for times when they are out of school and not under the supervision of their parent(s) or guardian(s). To integrate knowledge of child development with the school-age child care (SACC) program plan is essential for children to grow in their cognitive and affective domains.

The task is designing a "curriculum" that matches appropriate developmental stages and differences in children, and that stimulates each child's intellectual and emotional growth. There are several ways of creating a high-quality school-age child care program. Careful attention should be given not only to the developmental characteristics of the children but to the activities and studies that they have engaged in throughout the day.

Erik Erikson, a developmental theorist, describes the school-age child's social-emotional development as a time of industry and mastery of formal skills of life. Here the child learns how to relate to peers according to rules and enjoys teamwork and a sense of competency. In a SACC program the "match" occurs when there is cooperative planning and problem solving opportunities. Another theorist, Jean Piaget, who has directed his studies to ways children think and seek meaning, tells us that instruction on all levels of education must be founded on the activity of the learner. Out of the activity of the child comes understanding and the formation of concepts. The child's learning is spontaneous and natural. For the SACC program the "curriculum" (environment and atmosphere) is one in which children will be active and able to initiate and complete their own activites.

If observing a SACC center or program designed with the child's total needs in mind, one would find a sea of activity with children involved in a variety of operations. Some would be in small groups, others working individually. There would be older children tutoring young ones, teams, and partners engaged in a hum of industry. There would be incentives for participating and learning. The atmosphere would be relaxed and there would be a sense of fun and fellowship. Emphasis would be upon an investigation of interests. Materials and learning centers would be available and areas for movement, sports, and games would be provided. The "curriculum" would recognize that children learn in different ways, at different times, from things around them that interest them, and from each other.

Throughout this paper we have been concerned with ways to make the match between the child's developmental level and the learning experiences provided in the school-age child care programs. With careful planning and observing, the leader/teacher can provide meaningful experiences for each child. The program should be positive and supportive to children and their families and meet both developmental and child care needs.

In conclusion, the following key elements should be found in every school-age child care program:

1. provision for providing maximum individual attention and care for each child;
2. recruitment and selection of staff who have a knowledge or understanding of child development principles;
3. continuing training for staff and volunteers in planning, curriculum, attitudes, and skills in school-age progamming;
4. involvement of parents in policy development and programming;
5. a written philosophy and program goals related to developing children to their fullest potential;
6. a program area large enough to encourage movement and exploration with active and quiet areas along with private spaces where only one or two children can be at a time;
7. a basic curriculum designed to enhance social learning, self-esteem, and self-expression; and
8. an evaluation plan than can be used both to measure success in meeting program goals and to make recommendations for further program activity.

Paper 7

School-Age Child Care for Students with Special Needs

Mary Lynne Calhoun, Ph.D.
The University of North Carolina at Charlotte

Almost 4 million school-aged children in the United States, ages 5-17, have been identified as having special educational needs (Schwartz, 1984). Categories of special needs include speech impairment, hearing impairment, visual impairment, learning disabilities, mental retardation, emotional disturbance, orthopedic handicaps and other health impairments, and multihandicaps.

Many of these exceptional students need before and after school care. Some special needs will not be readily apparent in a child care setting; the student's difficulties may be restricted to academic situations or may be so slight that they are unnoticed. In cases such as these, no special program modifications will be needed. Other students will have obvious special needs in areas such as language, movement, learning, and behavior, and will require special planning and sensitivity on the part of the child care staff.

In school settings, an increasing number of handicapped children spend at least part of the school day in regular classes. The goals of this kind of mainstreaming effort include improved academic performance, social skill development, and positive self esteem. Many classroom teachers find that as they

*Reprinted with permission.

work to provide for the special needs of students who are identified as handicapped, they are better able to handle the individual needs of all their students. Similar benefits can occur when handicapped children are served in child care settings: the students can receive extra support in meeting their individual goals, and caregivers can increase their skill in meeting the special needs of all children.

This paper offers some suggestions for meeting child care needs of exceptional students. Sources of information about the child are offered as are suggestions for promoting good communication, managing behavior problems, and for positive programs.

Sources of Information About the Child

Family

Ask the family any questions you have about the application forms. Ask for demonstrations of techniques (such as lifting or feeding techniques for physically handicapped students) which may be unfamiliar to you. Observe family members with the student if you can. Watch how frustration and anger are handled, how communication is accomplised, how daily living needs are met. Talk about your concerns with the family members.

Agency Contacts

Ask the family's permission to contact therapists, teachers, and/or health care professionals if you have special questions about the student's care. Possible agency contacts include the school, activity program, speech clinic, and doctor.

Individualized Education Program(IEP)

If the student is receiving special services for the handicapped, an individualized program has been written detailing program goals. The parents may have a copy of this plan. If the parents do not have a copy, ask them to obtain one, since this information will be valuable in the overall care of the student. Study the IEP for clues of the student's needs and what skills are being worked on in school or in other settings. You may be able to help the student's development by doing the same activities that are being tried in other settings. Ask if there are helpful activities which you can do to support the goals of the IEP. Make sure that you gather information about the following:

communication
any special concerns about foods/eating
toileting
discipline/possible areas of behavior problems
physical handicaps
medications
leisure activities/special interests

Promoting Good Communication

1. Talk to the student, using an interesting and varied adult vocabulary.
2. Encourage the student to talk, ask questions, and listen for answers.
3. Don't give the student a speech lesson every time he speaks. If you correct articulation every time he opens his mouth, the student will find talking to be a discouraging business.
4. If you have difficulty understanding what she is saying,

assume some responsibility for the problem and assist her in trying again by asking leading questions. (I'm sorry that I'm having trouble understanding you - are you telling me about something that happened at school?")

5. If you are communicating an idea or information to which she must respond, make sure that you have her attention.
6. In all aspects of communication, approach the task with respect for the student and in a calm and clear manner.

Issues in Managing Behavior Problems

Sometimes behavior problems can be avoided if you recognize potential trouble spots or situations and do something about them. Some of the situations which could lead to problem behavior are these:

(1) Tasks that are too difficult and at which the student cannot succeed.
(2) Time pressure to hurry up and get something done in an unrealistic amount of time.
(3) Being interrupted in an activity.
(4) Bullying or teasing by others.
(5) Excessive physical or sensory stimulation (examples include tickling, spinning, loud music or household appliances).
(6) Boredom
(7) Your irritability, frustration or fatigue
(8) Not having an opportunity to express feelings or not being heard.
(9) Threats.
(10) Being lied to or being misinformed.

(11) Need for physical activity

(12) Need for attention.

(13) Curiosity.

(14) Hunger, thirst, fatigue, need for physical contact.

(15) Reactions to sickness/pain or medication.

(16) Lack of skill in expressing feelings.

In summary, the student's physical state, your manner of responding to the student, and the appropriateness of an activity may cause the student to behave in certain undesirable ways.

You can avoid many problem behviors by addressing these issues: by attending to physical needs, changing activities, changing the manner in which the student is being addressed, focusing positive attention on the needs of the student.

Even the most alert and sensitive child care provider will occasionally need to deal with problem behaviors. Here are some brief guidelines for managing problem behaviors ranging from little intervention on your part to a significant level of intervention. Always check with the parents or on the treatment plan to see which techniques are recommended or used.

(1) Ignore. Some problem behaviors are silly or mischievous attention getters. Not paying attention to the behavior may reduce its occurence.

(2) Divert. Start a new and interesting activity to change the student's attention from the problem activity.

(3) Ask. the student, using a firm and simple statement to stop the behavior.

(4) Use physical prompts to guide the student away from undesirable activity. For example, you could say "It's not healthy to eat cat food" while guiding the hand filled with cat food to the waste basket. Or you could say "climbing on the windows is not safe" while guiding the student away from the windows.

(5) Encourage Relaxation. An overstimulated student may need to be physically guided to chair or bed for a brief rest period. This relaxation time should not be considered punishment but rather a change for calming down and regrouping. (adapted from Calhoun & Duncan, 1983)

Be sure to obtain information from parents about potential problems and how they are handled. Discuss "house rules" with parents.

Positive Programming

The time that a student spends with you can be a happy time indeed. While every minute of school-age child care time does not need to be planned to the smallest detail, it is important that you have some good ideas about activities that will serve at least one of these purposes:

(1) maintain good routines in self-care and independence that are being worked on at home and at school;

(2) encourage socialization;

(3) encourage progress in movement, communication, or academic skill development;

(4) leisure activities that are fun.

The best kind of program will be paced so that a variety of activities suitable to the student's special interests and needs are introduced.

Here are some general suggestions for activity planning:

(1) Look at the student's application for clues. Special interests may be listed that will guide you in planning activities.

(2) Consider the student's age in activity selection. Teenagers and preteens may appreciate age-appropriate activities in such areas as music, magazines, games, and household responsibilities.

(3) Share the student's involvement in an activity. Stay physically close, participate at the same level (i.e., at a table, on the floor), make good eye contact and maintain good attention to what the student is doing.

References

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Schwartz, L.L. (1984), *Exceptional Students in the Mainstream*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

General References

Module 1

Unit 2

Baden, R., Genser, A., Levine, J., & Seligson, M. (1982). School-age child care: An action manual. Boston: Auburn.

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Moorman, C., & Dishon, D. (1983). Our classroom, we can learn together. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Samples, B., Charles, C., & Barnhart, D. (1977). The wholeschool book. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Activities Module One: Unit Two

Module 1
Unit 2
Activity 4

Relate your discussion to your reading and activities involving first-hand observations and interviewing. Go through these questions in preparation for discussion.

1. In what ways are the developmental characteristics of children ages 5-12 reflected in the model programs described in Paper 4?

2. What evidence did you find that parents consider developmental characteristics of children when they described the school-age child care programs they want for them? (Activity 3)

3. What provisions do you think school-age child care staff should make to ensure matching the developmental characteristics of children ages 5-12 years with the program activities?

Module 1
Unit 2
Activity 5

Allow at least 2 hours for this activity. Visit a school-age child care program and make a detailed list of the provisions made for the children. For example, a crafts area would be entered into the left-hand column, and the list on the right might include construction paper, scissors, glue, paint, paint brushes, drawing paper, poster board, yarn, etc.

Areas of Provision	Materials Provided Within Areas

Module 1
Unit 2
Activity 6

View the videotape, "The School-Age Child." This activity may be done either individually or in pairs for comparison.

1. Record in detail what activities children are involved in; include materials being used and what themes are being pursued.

2. Make notes of opportunities you might have used to extend the children's experience; give details of what you would have done.

Discussion Guide B

Allow at least 30 minutes for this discussion. Bring the list of Areas of Provision and Materials with you from Activity 5. It will be helpful in working in small groups. This discussion should help you to see the value of matching the program activities with the developmental needs of the school-age child.

Exchange observation notes and compare the findings of your group for Activity 6. Use the questions in Activity 4 as a basis of your discussion of developmental needs. Focus on children with special needs.

Conclude your discussion by raising questions about the consequences of inappropriate activities and inadequate programming for the school-age child. Make brief notes on the main points of the discussion.

Further Readings

Module 1
Unit 2

Flake-Hobson, C., Robinson, B., and Skeen, P. (1983). Child development and relationships. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

An introduction to child development from conception to adolescence. Special chapters on physical and cognitive development and social-emotional development of school-age children.

Minichum, P. (1977). The middle years of childhood. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

An explanation of the development of children from ages six to twelve. Focuses on cognitive, social and individual development and the school as a context for growth.

Williams, J., & Stith, M. (1980). Middle childhood: Behavior and development (2nd ed.). New York: MacMillan.

A practical, in-depth examination of development during the middle years. Special section on the family, school, peers, and guidance of the middle-years child.

Unit Three: The Stress of Childhood

Introduction/Instructions

Over the school years there are both continuities and changes in children. There are changes in their relationships, in their sense of independence and competence, and in their roles within and outside of their families. The impact on the child of these changes depends on a complex network of factors which range from cultural attitudes through situational circumstances to the child's personal attributes.

Studies of children suggest there are no simple connections between what is good or bad for a child. Children are active participants in life and through their choices and perceptions determine to a great extent the impact on themselves. In the case of latchkey children there is debate as to the effects of self-care. Some researchers suggest that latchkey children suffer from social impoverishment. Others contend that they become more independent and self-sufficient. Unit Three examines this debate. Attention is also focused on the contributions of well-planned high-quality school-age child care programs to the child's total development.

Special consideration is given to children growing up too fast, too soon. The boundaries between adulthood and childhood appear to be shrinking. Children are expected to deal with problems far beyond their years. A look at self-esteem suggests ways for enhancing the development of high self-esteem in the school-age child.

To work through the unit:

- Read Paper 8, Consider the differences between urban and suburban or rural latchkey children.
- Complete Activity 7
- Read Paper 9 to identify examples of ways children are being hurried through childhood. Consider how the nature of the child contributes to this phenomenon.
- Complete Activity 8, which is designed to help you crystallize ideas presented in Paper 9.
- Prepare for the Discussion Group by reviewing Units One and Two.
- Complete Activity 10. This should help you identify the match between your priorities and the child's development as discussed in Unit 2.
- Work through Discussion Guide C.

Paper 8

Physical, Social, Emotional, and Intellectual Stressors of Latchkey Children

It has commonly been suggested that latchkey children are "at risk." In particular, some researchers point to the possible physical, social, and psychological dangers associated with children being left to care for themselves. The truth of the matter may be that the appropriate questions related to the state of the child in self-care have not yet been formulated. Society tends to explore the obvious, while the study of growth and development is complicated and complex.

Elementary school-age children may be more vulnerable as latchkey children than any other age group. The responsibilities thrust upon them may demand decision-making far beyond their years and out of their range of experiences. Children in middle childhood have much to prove. They want to be perceived as competent and knowledgeable. They will stretch their capabilities to the breaking point in an attempt to avoid disapproval from adults and peers. This apparent need for approval can lead to hidden fears and negative feelings.

Studies about the effects of self-care have not yielded conclusive results. Control groups are absent from many of the latchkey studies, making appropriate comparisons impossible. Some investigators compare children of employed and non-employed mothers, describing child care arrangements only as unsupervised or supervised. Without description of specific child care arrangements, conclusions cannot be drawn about latchkey children from these studies.

Investigations of the latchkey phenomenon are limited in other ways. Children's experiences are cumulative while latchkey outcomes that are reported focus only on short-term effects. Longitudinal research is needed to gain information about the full impact of what it means to be an unsupervised child.

Many facets of the child's sense of self need to be considered as we look for further explanations of how the latchkey experience affects a child's life-long behavior. The theory that people are motivated by the urge to be competent was advanced by Robert White. (1959). White reported that people of all ages will do whatever is necessary to overcome a sense of powerlessness. They will do their best to make their environment work for them and give them a sense of self-control.

Individuals who believe they are in control of themselves and their environment have a sense of personal responsibility. Those who perceive that others have more control over them than they have over themselves experience what has been called "learned helplessness." This sense of control seems to be relatively stable by third grade (Norwickie and Strickland, 1973). How do these studies relate to the practice of self-care? When the responsibility for self-care is premature what happens to the natural development of attitudes and beliefs and the child's sense of worth?

How do media influence the latchkey child? In self-care, children are watching television more than ever. They are selecting models of behavior and defining the ideal types of their times. How does this fact influence the outcome of how children perceive themselves? Is TV-watching related to a sense of fear or a false sense of independence?

Answers to these questions - and there are many others to consider - are essential if we are to understand the multidimensional stressors on latchkey children. Parent-child relationships are of great importance. How do divorce, the working mother, and other social changes interact with the latchkey phenomenon? The lack of data is significant in itself.

Studies to this point have debated which children are more vulnerable to self-care. Findings about care arrangements and the context of that care have not produced any surprising results. The burden continues to be on low-income, urban minority children. But for all children, of any social class or ethnic group, childhood is a special time for establishing basic attitudes and beliefs about the self and a sense of belonging to the family and community. Future investigations should consider the whole child and the optimal times for forming relationships and positive self-esteem.

Research findings today are fairly consistent when the adjustment of poor black children left at home to care for themselves is studied. Woods (1972) was one of the first researchers to investigate the association of school achievement and social development with supervised and unsupervised care of upper elementary age black children. She found lower school achievement, poor performance on intellectual tests and problems with self-concept mainly in the unsupervised girls in the sample.

These same girls perceived their mothers as less controlling and intrusive than their supervised peers. When supervised and unsupervised boys were compared there were few significant differences.

Long and Long (1981) interviewed 53 latchkey children and 32 adult-supervised children in grades one through six in an all-black, parochial school in Washington, D.C. There were three groupings in the study: those in self-care; those cared for by older siblings; and those supervised by adults. Children who were left to care for themselves routinely during the non-school hours experienced more fear than those who were in the care of siblings. There were major differences in the instructions given by parents to children in self-care than to those at home with older siblings. It appeared that the child at home alone was required to know more specifics about procedures to use in emergencies more so than any of the other two groups. Greater freedom and more flexible home routines were allowed the sibling care group over those at home alone. There were noticable sex differences when it came to being allowed to play outside the home without an adult present. Fifty percent of the girls at home alone said they could play outside while 70% of the boys alone could. The study investigated isolation, parental-child relationships, chores, having friends over, sick care arrangements, summertime and holiday care as well as fear. In this study the prevalence of fears in the children were assessed as expressed fears, recurrent bad dreams or nightmares, expressed methods for coping with fears, and a general impression of the child's fear as rated by the interviewer. More than 30% of the children left alone at home and 20% left at home with a sibling reported recurring nightmares and high fear levels---including noises, the dark, and that someone might break into the house. The most common method for coping with fear as reported by the latchkey children was hiding. The second most named method was television watching with the volume turned high.

In a retrospective study, Long and Long (1983) found that approximately 50 percent of the adults they interviewed who were former latchkey children suffered from a "latchkey syndrome." These adults, most of whom were black, had a residue from their latchkey experiences which was characterized by loneliness, boredome, resentment toward parents for their insensitivity, increased fears (especially at being alone), and social isolation.

Despite the fact that disadvantages of latchkey children were cited by Long and Long (1981) and Woods (1972), it should be pointed out that the subjects in both samples were all living in inner-city black ghetto areas. On the other hand, in studies of white middle-class children in rural or affluent suburban settings, these disadvantages were not found. From a survey of 77 parents of fifth and seventh graders in a rural school district, for example. Galambos and Garbarino (1983) found that latchkey children performed no differently in school than did non-latchkey children, nor were they more fearful of being alone. Other studies of similar children and environments that are characterized as relatively safe such as in Montreal, Canada (Gold and Andreas, 1978a, 1978b,) and wealthy suburbs of

Washington, D.C. (Long and Long, 1983b) showed no significant differences in academic and emotional adjustment or achievement between latchkey and non-latchkey children.

Two studies in the Piedmont area of North Carolina reported somewhat contradictory findings. Parents of 1,806 children aged 5-14 were randomly selected from the Mecklenburg County Schools by Rowland, Robinson and Coleman (1985). Of those children who routinely cared for themselves, approximately one-quarter were reported to be somewhat fearful and apprehensive when at home. However, when Rodman, Pratto and Nelson (1985) studied matched groups of children in self-care or adult care in Guilford County, no differences were found in self-esteem, locus of control or social adjustments.

Summary

It should be noted that we are only beginning to identify the unique stressors faced by latchkey children. Future research studies will need to focus on the numerous environmental contexts and natural developmental flow which work together to determine to what degree a latchkey arrangment is harmful or beneficial for any individual or group of children.

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Paper 9

The Shrinking of Childhood

Today children are swept into the mainstream of life earlier than ever before. Some are placed into group living as early as six weeks. Others find themselves being shuffled from household to household in order to fit into the schedules and life styles of their families. Society has changed, family structures have changed and the child's role and place have not escaped.

Along with the changes have come numerous experimental programs designed to foster the child's development and intellect. There has been an ever-increasing demand for the "basics," for excellence and achievement. Parents are deluged with literature and advice assuring them that if they enroll their child in the "right" program or provide the "right" materials they will be able to increase their child's IQ and capabilities. Children have also become a target of the media. They are the new consumers who host "talk" shows and "graduate" from preschool at age 5. In a sense, an "Age of Innocence and Protection" has been replaced with an "Age of Preparation."

Some say we are seeing children grow up too fast, too soon. They say the child has become the unwilling, unintended victim of overwhelming stress. In his book, The Hurried Child (1981), Professor David Elkind of Tufts University describes a multitude of physical, psychological, and social trappings of adulthood that hurried children are forced to take on before they are prepared to deal with them.

Boundaries between adults and children are shrinking. Children are expected to "deal with" and "understand" family problems and financial difficulties. They are asked to comfort adults through divorce, death, and devastation. They are pressured to conform and are given responsibilities that are premature and sometimes dangerous. Child sexual abuse may be the most ominous indicator of this trend. Early demands for formal education and the over-abundance of testing for preschoolers are examples of the push to jump from infancy into minature adulthood. "Achievement overload" and schedules that include ballet lessons, piano, swimming, softball, etc. are leading to early burnout and sluggish, withdrawn behavior.

Dressing children in minature adult costumes with designer labels and allowing the young to wear makeup and sheer stockings has made it more difficult for children to act as children. More importantly it has removed indicators for adults that set children apart and signaled that these people were to be treated differently; perhaps, with indulgence.

There are many examples of what Patricia O'Brien (1981) has called "The Shrinking of Childhood." None is more visible than the way children are portrayed on television. They are "adultified" characters dressed in three piece suits or skimpy bikinis. They are precocious, well-behaved and reasonable beyond their years. They demonstrate emotional and intellectual maturity that cause children to hurry to behave in wise, mature ways and promise adults more understanding than they have the right to expect.

The change in the programs of summer camps from sailing to computers and from tennis once-a-day to the rigors of adult competition reflects the attitude of growing up fast and engaging in activities to win and attain first place. Americans are always on the lookout for doing things expeditiously. Being time-oriented and time-regulated, we pass these values on to our children.

The nature of the child is adaptive. To please and fit into the scheme of things hold high priority for children as they strive for acceptance and feelings of belonging. Their characters may become so specialized so early that they may be somewhat undeveloped in the most important areas of childhood. In a sense, growing up too fast may cause some children not to be able to go further. They may be constricted and experience a sense of helplessness. Their natural curiosities and discovery modes may, for all practical purposes, become immobile. They will become inflexible and rigid, afraid to risk and explore. They will lose their endowment to reach potential and to pursue the highest level of knowing and relating. Emotional distress and behavioral disturbance will be a way of life.

What can we do to help the children who are being pressured to grow up too fast, too soon? How can we reduce the stressors of the eighties? First of all we can appreciate the child's feelings about being pushed or hurried. We can avoid thoughtlessness as we go about our busy day. We can communicate our appreciation for all they do for us and set appropriate limits on their functions around the house. We can encourage the children to use their imaginations and to engage in pure play activities that have little form and little structure. We can provide a safe, secure environment that is caring and nurturing, where anything and everything is possible. We can eliminate the pressure to win, to use the child as a status symbol for our own insecurities. We can be quick to forgive and forget and consistent in our temperament. We can take our cues from the children and respond to their eagerness and wonderment. We can be supportive and dependable, respecting the child's curiosity and questioning. We can allow the child time for vision and dreaming. In summary, we can see childhood as an important stage of life. We can honor this period of growth and development by giving it the attention and value it deserves. We can enjoy the time that we spend with our children. We can concentrate on living in the present and invest in our children's future by allowing them to live fully today!

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Paper 10

The Child's Self-Esteem

School-age children are capable of defining their individuality and personal emotions and capabilities. A new sense of self-awareness causes them to compare themselves to peers and to make self-judgments as to their abilities, influence, and popularity. In essence this comparison becomes the basis for a sense of self-esteem. To a certain extent it is a mirror image of the judgment of others filtered through past experiences and the present state of mind of the child.

The child's degree of self-esteem will affect all behavior. It will underlie the range of things the child will attempt. High esteem leads to originality and initiating behavior, whereas low self-esteem tends to make the child more anxious and more dependent. When a child has a good sense of self no task is too difficult and activities are entered into with gusto.

There is a relationship between child-rearing and self-esteem. Parents and teachers with high self-esteem tend to be reasonable and fair in dealing with children. Children learn quickly whether or not they are viewed in positive, supportive ways and whether or not they are free to make choices and engage in problem-solving.

Children want to become responsible. They know that to be viewed as worthwhile that they must maintain a satisfactory standard of behavior. When the learning atmosphere is characterized by acceptance and expectation, children will respond by becoming responsible and by establishing appropriate restraints.

Along with self-esteem comes the need to practice self-reliance, to see how responsible one can be within some dimensions of freedom and guidance. Given time to discover and a general atmosphere of excitement children are more apt to trust their own judgments and in turn increase their self-esteem.

There is no one way to guarantee how children best develop perceptions of their potential. There are many recipes for success when recreation and education are combined, and children are encouraged to create and interact. The following are suggested as tips for personalizing activities to foster the development of high self-esteem in the school-age child:

1. Recognize each child as an individual and evaluate as such;
2. Encourage children to set their own standards and compete with themselves and not with others;
3. Celebrate the differences in children and refrain from stereotyping on the basis of age, race, sex or socioeconomic status;
4. Share your ideas and thoughts with children, letting them know you are "human;"
5. Plan for choice-making and alternatives which allow children greater possibilities of conceiving of themselves as successful learners;
6. Encourage the children to try new experiences, to express their own opinions and ideas;
7. Demonstrate a respect for the opinions voiced by the children by incorporating their ideas into the activities and program;
8. Help children avoid situations which will inevitably and unnecessarily lead to failure by providing appropriate developmental activities and events;

9. Allow children the opportunity to establish their own criteria as a means of individual evaluation. Children who develop self-checking and self-correcting skills gain self-confidence.

The home and the school along with other institutions are critically involved in helping the child develop a personal concept of worth and dignity. All people who work with children should be concerned with the child's sense of self. Careful planning and attention to the child's growth and development will help parents and leader/teachers provide experiences which can lead to high self-esteem.

General References

Module 1

Unit 3

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Module 1
Unit 3
Activity 7

List the pressures and stresses you have experienced in the present calendar year. Are there few or many? What ways have you coped with these factors? How have you been successful? Do your expectations for children differ from your expectations for yourself? In what ways?

Module 1
Unit 3
Activity 8

Clip items from newspapers, magazines; note advertisements that are indicators of the stressors of childhood as discussed in Papers 8 and 9. Take the clippings to your group for discussion.

Module 1
Unit 3
Activity 9

Compare as a group your clippings in Activity 8 as follows:

1. What links can you make between the clippings and:
    a. family structure(s)
    b. media influence
    c. working mothers
    d. divorce
    e. federal and state cuts in social programs
    f. parent expectations
    g. mobility of population
    h. low child care standards
    i. unemployment
2. What ages of children seem to be most visibly effected by these stressors?
3. What institutions, organizations, groups, individuals, etc. can you identify who respond to children and family stress? In what ways are they most successful? least successful?

Module 1
Unite 3
Activity 10

Create a list of what your priorities are for school-age children. Use the following list and rank the priorities (1 for highest, 2 for next, and so on). List additional priorities if you want. Circle your top 4 priorities. Think about the school-age children with whom you will be working. Think about the program and activities you are planning. Do your activities exemplify your priorities? What priorities would the parents of the children select; the children themselves? Are your priorities really important? To whom?

- to enjoy the school-age program
- to be trustful and honest
- to respect the rights of their peers
- to be a good communicator
- to make decisions
- to be independent
- to follow the rules and regulations
- to listen to other's ideas and suggestions
- to share their dreams
- to demonstrate care and concern for others
- to be creative
- to initiate activities
- to develop competence

Discussion Guide C

1. Compare as a group your findings in Activity 8 as follows:
   - a. Do the clippings support Elkind's hypothesis that children are becoming "victims" of society's systems?
   - b. Discuss the evidence of stress and identify ways for reducing the unreasonable expectations placed on today's children.

2. Compare as a group your priorities identified in Activity 10 as follows:
   - a. What priorities would you like to change? How could you change them?
   - b. In what ways do your priorities reflect the philosophy of your child care program. In what ways do they not?

3. With your group begin the process of evaluating what you have gained from this unit. Use the following sentence starters for reflecting?
   - a. I have learned....
   - b. I have relearned....
   - c. I was surprised that ....
   - d. I agree with ....
   - e. I disagree with...
   - f. I need more information about ....

Further Readings

Module 1
Unit 3

Belsky, J., Lerner, R., and Spainer, G. (1984). _The child in the family_. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Describes the key features of reciprocal relationships between children's development and changes in the family.

Greone, R., & Yawkey, T. (1985). _Early and middle childhood: Growth, abuse, and delinquency_. Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Company.

Presents 21 outstanding reports on some of the major problems and issues in school-age child care today.

Strommer, E., McKinney, J. P., & Fitzgerald, H. E. (1983). _Developmental psychology: The school-age child_. Homewood, IL: Dorsey.

An examination of the clinical and research literature on many aspects of the school-age child, including personality theories, intelligence testing, and moral develoment.

Module Two: The School-Age Child Care (SACC) Leader

Objectives:

1. To develop an understanding of different leadership styles.
2. To examine the qualities that make good SACC leaders.
3. To understand, enjoy, and respond to the needs of SACC children.
4. To gain a sense of sound discipline approaches when working with SACC children.
5. To identify a variety of communication styles that can be used with children.
6. To obtain an understanding of how to build initiative and industry among school-age children.
7. To acquire skills for helping children understand and express feelings.
8. To develop an understanding of the philosophy of the SACC program.
9. To acquire the ability to implement appropriate curriculum activities.
10. To achieve knowledge of the components of a good SACC program.

Module Two Pretest

Multiple Choice Items

1. Authoritarian leaders in SACC programs tend to:

   A. Impose rigid controls and make all decisions and rules.
   B. Make decisions and rules jointly with children.
   C. Impose no limits, guidelines, or structures whatsoever.
   D. All of the above.

2. Assertive Discipline:

   A. Is an example of authoritarian control.
   B. Stresses children's ability to regulate themselves without outside control.
   C. Helps leaders take an active stance toward doing what they can to influence children's behaviors.
   D. Has principles that are based on the scriptures.

3. Qualities of a good SACC leader include which of the following?

   A. Sensitivity and enthusiasm.
   B. Almost anyone who is friendly, warm and breathing.
   C. Knowledge and understanding of children.
   D. Both A and C.

4. SACC leaders must be able to:

   A. Grade the children's classroom work.
   B. Work as a member of a team.
   C. Respect and listen to children.
   D. Both B and C.

5. Which of the following are important to remember when structuring a SACC program?

   A. That children have spent a greater portion of their day in highly structured situations.
   B. That children enjoy taking tests in SACC programs.
   C. That children should be allowed to talk with friends but not above a whisper.
   D. None of the above.

6. Which of the following statements is false?

   A. SACC activities should be available to respond to a wide range of needs.
   B. A formal SACC environment is better suited to children's needs than an informal one.
   C. Right brain learning activities are better suited for SACC children than left brain activities.
   D. All of the above are false.

7. The best response for a SACC leader who finds a child smoking is:

   A. "That's a stupid thing to do!"
   B. "If I were your parent, I would spank you!"
   C. "You know smoking is against the rules."
   D. "I'm really upset that I have to inform your parents about this."

8. Self-control and discipline develops best when:

   A. SACC children understand the logical consequences of their behavior.
   B. SACC leaders catch the child being good.
   C. SACC leaders model proper behaviors.
   D. All of the above.

9. SACC leaders can best develop initiative and industry in children when:

   A. Children learn to adhere to rules.
   B. SACC leaders start off strict and gradually let up.
   C. Children believe they are a worry.
   D. SACC leaders constantly tell children where they're going astray.

10. The philosophy of a SACC program contains which of the following elements?

    A. Daily instruction and exercise in academic skills.
    B. Meets the needs of children between five and six.
    C. A structured framework where children spend most of their time.
    D. A varied enrichment program of activities that meets the needs and interests of children.

True/False Statements:

1. SACC programs should have a daily schedule that outlines different time blocks and affords a consistent, predictable structure.

2. Children in SACC programs are superior in academic achievement, self-reliance, and self-concept compared to latchkey children.

3. The continuity and dependability of SACC programs are seen as major benefits for children.

4. The SACC curriculum should take place mostly inside classrooms.

5. Safety and supervision are not concerns of SACC programs.

6. SACC workers need little experience at what they do as long as they love children.

7. One benefit for SACC leaders is that the range of children's needs is narrow since their ages are so similar.

8. A major goal of SACC leaders is to help children hold their feelings inside.

9. An example of a right brain activity is completing arthmetic problems for homework.

10. In group situations the goal of SACC leaders is to help children feel part of the goup.

Matching:

1.____Placating

2.____Active Listening

3.____"I Message"

4.____ Industry

5.____Empathetic Understanding

6.____SACC Curriculum Activities

7.____SACC Children

8.____Clear, reasonable expectations

9.____Democratic SACC Leaders

10.____Permissive SACC Leaders

A. "I got so excited when you made that homerun!"

B. "What a stupid thing to do!"

C. Becoming a productive member of society.

D. Latchkey children.

E. Have better social-emotional adjustment than latchkey childre

F. Feeling with another person.

G. Trip to a museum.

H. Memorizing historical dates.

I. Leads to behavior controls.

J. "I'm sorry, but I don't feel lik doing that today."

K. Checking on the accuracy and comprehension of the message received

L. Encourage children to be independent and self-directing.

M. Encourage children to lack self-control.

Identify the following:

1. Industry versus inferiority
2. Leadership styles
3. Assertive
4. Summerhill
5. Qualities of a good SACC leader
6. Leveling
7. Integrated curriculum
8. Right-brain activities
9. SACC philosophy
10. "I messages"

Unit One: Focus on the Leader

Introduction/Instructions

The school-age years are paradoxical in that children are moving toward productivity and independence while needing the steadfast support of parents, teachers, and other community leaders. School-age children spend more time in school than any other activity outside of home. As a result, the examples teachers and leaders of school-age child care programs set for these youngsters have a powerful effect upon their development. Children are exposed to many different disciplinary and leadership styles that can have specific effects on the behavior of children. SACC leaders need to be especially aware of these leadership styles and consider the style or combination of styles they utilize as well as the possible influences these leadership approaches can have on children.

Unit One will discuss the authoritarian, democratic, and permissive leadership styles. In addition, the qualities of a good SACC leader will be explored, thereby allowing self-evaluation of those traits that are strong and those that still need fine tuning.

To work through the Unit:

*Read paper 11. Consider the three leadership styles and their effects on school-age children.

*Complete activity 11

*Read Paper 12 to get a better understanding of the qualities necessary for a good SACC leader.

*Complete Activities 12 and 13.

Paper 11

Leadership Styles

School-age children spend more time in school than any place outside of home. As a result, the examples teachers and leaders of school-age child care programs set for these youngsters have a powerful effect upon their development. Children are exposed to many different disciplinary and leadership styles.

As a rule, the approaches most leaders take in SACC programs fall into one of three categories: authoritarian, democratic, and permissive. As you read about these three styles, try to pinpoint which one best describes your leadership style.

Authoritarian Leaders

Authoritarian leaders tend to impose rigid controls and make all decisions and rules in regard to the SACC program. Such leaders control the behavior and attitudes of children in accordance with an absolute set of standards that are enforced by fear techniques and disapproval. They emphasize obedience, respect for authority, preservation of order, and they discourage verbal give and take with children. They believe children have few rights and should adhere unquestioningly to authority. They use power and firm disciplinary controls without reason or explanation. Authoritarian leaders are generally more detached, less approving, and less affectionate in relationships with children.

Under authoritarian leadership, children have no chance to learn to make the best decisions for themselves. Instead, the harsh and controlled approach leads children to develop behaviors governed by the external control of fear of punishment--not by an internalized set of standards. When the leader is temporarily absent, the group cannot function properly on its own and the children tend to be more hostile and less cooperative than those children under the direction of other, more positive leadership styles.

An example of authoritarian leadership is described in James Dobson's book, Dare to Discipline (1970). The adult has the authority and should impose that authority on children even if it means corporal punishment. "Spare the rod and spoil the child." Children must adhere to adult control and the adult is under no obligation to explain or give reasons for actions taken. Dobson claims that parents and teachers' lax discipline has led to such social problems as delinquency, teenage pregnancy, and drug abuse. Adults who care for children must dare to discipline in order for children to learn self-control, human kindness, and respect for others. Dobson disagrees with the belief that children should be allowed to fail in school if they so choose, forget to follow SACC rules, or refuse to do their part in cleaning up after class projects. He advocates instilling respect for adults, communicating after administering punishment, controlling children without nagging, withholding large amounts of materialism, and avoiding extremes in love and control.

Democratic Leaders

The democratic style allows children more freedom. Decisions and rules are made jointly by the children and the SACC leaders--not imposed on the children. Democratic leaders provide children choices and general guidance in making decisions without imposing step-by-step instructions. Democratic leaders use affection and positive rewards instead of lots of punishment and shaming. They demand mature behavior from children and explain reasons behind demands and discipline, while also allowing children to explain their positions. Democratic leaders expect children to conform to adult requirements, are firm and unyielding to children's whims and pleas, and enforce agreed-upon standards and rules firmly. Children are encouraged to be indpendent and self-directing. This reasonable yet firm approach helps children develop responsible, mature internalized standards of behavior.

SACC leaders using democratic styles prepare children for autonomy in a rapidly changing society where control of behavior must come from within. Children under the direction of a democratic leader tend to be more self-reliant, self-controlled, interested, and self-motivated. They also have more harmonious peer relationships than children in other groups.

An example of democratic leadership is Lee Canter's Assertive Discipline for the Teacher (1976). Assertive discipline helps teachers take an active stance toward doing what they can to influence students' behaviors. Canter says that teachers (and in this case SACC leaders) have rights to do their jobs and children have rights which must also be protected. Through a firm approach, teachers can assure that everyone's rights are recognized and the best interests of children not violated:

> The assertive leader is one who clearly and firmly communicates her (his) wants and needs to her (his) students, and is prepared to reinforce

> her (his) words with appropriate actions. She (He) responds in a manner which maximizes her (his) potential to get her (his) needs met, but in no way violates the best interests of the students.(p.9)

Crucial elements in the program are immediacy of follow-through on inappropriate and *appropriate* behaviors. The child makes the choice and knows in advance what the consequences of inappropriate and appropriate behaviors will be. A major goal of assertive discipline is to reinforce good behaviors and to help shape children in a direction that is positive rather than one that is negative.

Permissive Leaders

Permissive leaders impose no limits, guidelines, or structures. Children are left totally on their own and are given complete decisionmaking authority. Permissive leaders provide little guidance, allowing children to act on impulse and to do anything they wish without demanding responsible, mature, and independent behaviors in return. Discipline is lax and inconsistent. This "anything goes" style sometimes leads children to overstep their bounds and causes permissive leaders to react in desperation--resorting to ridicule and temper outbursts in self-defense. This free-wheeling and inconsistent leadership style produces similar children to those under the direction of an authoritarian leader: children may be uncertain, confused, and unable to make responsible decisions whether in the classroom, on the ballfield, or in the swimming pool. These impulsive-aggressive children are often immature and discontent and even less self-reliant and self-controlled than children under authoritarian leadership.

The permissive approach of A.S. Neill in his book Summerhill A Radical Approach to Child Rearing (1977) stresses the natural goodness of children. He describes his school, Summerhill, where children have no rules and where they are free to do whatever they wish so long as they do not violate the rights of others. Children are allowed to regulate themselves without outside discipline and operate under the belief that to impose any authority is wrong. Neill believes that the child should not do anything until he or she comes to the opinion--his or her own opinion--that it should be done. Freedom, Neill believes, means doing whatever a child wishes as long as it doesn't interfere with the freedom of others. This includes deciding whether or not to attend classes at school. Out of their own free choice, says Neill, children will arrive at self-discipline and their own sense of values.

Experiment on Leadership Styles

A famous experiment by Lewin and his colleagues organized 10-year-old boys into three different groups, each one under a different leadership style (Lewin et al., 1938). The boys worked together on soap carvings, mural painting, mask making, and other activities. Leadership styles set the tone for the groups and influenced the children's behavior. In each group children got different messages about how to make decisions and work with others toward a goal. Children in the authoritarian group argued and competed against one another rather than working cooperatively toward a joint effort. When their leader left the room, children had difficulty working constructively. As a whole, boys in the authoritarian group were disinterested and displeased with their project. In the democratic group more cooperation toward group goals was observed and morale was high. When the leader left the room, the boys continued their active involvement and interest. The permissive group struggled with problems of disorganization and frustration. Although the boys tried to pull themselves together as a group, they were never successful in establishing a cooperative work situation.

Summary

Most leaders use all three styles of leadership at one time or another. And some may use a mixture of two or more. But experts conclude that under the guidance of a democratic, respected leader who provides both direction and choice, children will learn to make decisions and to accept responsibility better than they would under oppressive leadership or no leadership at all.

References

Canter, L., and Canter, M. Assertive discipline: A take charge approach for today's educator. Santa Monica, CA: Canter and Associates, 1976.

Dobson, J. (1970). Dare to Discipline. Wheaton, Il: Tyndale Press.

Lewin, K., Lippit, R., and White, R.K.(1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created "social climates." Journal of Social Psychology, 10, 271-299.

Neill, A.S. (1977). Summerhill: A radical approach to child rearing. New York. Pocket Books.

Paper 12

What Makes a Good SACC Leader?

Many qualities combine to make a good SACC leader, beyond the years of schooling required and the minimum age. We've already discussed the importance of the effect of leadership style on children's development. In addition, children need leaders who are flexible and can work the early morning or late afternoon hours that SACC programs require. Patience and stamina are also necessary qualities for the rigorous demands of the child care environment.

Above and beyond these more basic requirements, leaders must be special people. Effective leaders are warm, sensitive, enthusiastic, and are generous with praise. They like children and they enjoy being around children. They have confidence in themselves which carries over in confidence-building in children. Good self-confidence is the building block to openness to criticism and a sense of humor that lets leaders laugh at themselves when others laugh at their mistakes. Good SACC leaders must communicate well with children as well as their colleagues and administrators. Docia Zavitkovsky (1980) insists that just anyone off the street cannot lead a quality SACC program.

The talents and energies of SACC leaders largely determine the quality of the program that they oversee. SACC leaders must know about developmental levels of children and must be able to plan and carry out a program appropriate for them. They allow children the opportunity to explore, learn on their own, and learn by doing. They give children choices within the broader limits that have been established by program guidelines. SACC leaders are child-oriented--molding program content around children's interests rather than stepping in with a preplanned idea that molds children around a "canned" activity. Good SACC leaders are flexible and spontaneous --they teach off the cuff. The Goodyear Blimp, passing overhead, becomes a spontaneous science lesson. A fight on the playground becomes an informal lesson on cooperative spirit. Sudden death of pet or person can be turned into a chance to discuss personal fears and emotions surrounding such natural life events.

Above all, SACC leaders are eager and willing to continue learning from others. They are committed to their work and want to know what's going on in their field. They take advantage of staff development opportunities. And they share their knowledge with coworkers.

In summary, a good SACC leader has more than a diploma or a degree. They have more basic personal qualities that offere something of value to kids. The development of these characteristics will foster relationships with children and guarantee a top-notch SACC program.

References

Zavitkovsky, D. (1980). Children first: A look at the needs of school-age children. *School-age child care, programs and issues.* Urbana, Ill.: ERIC/EECE).

Activities Module Two: Unit One

Module 2

Unit 1

Activity 11

Allow at least one hour for this activity. Plan a field trip, an arts and crafts activity, or an organized sport with school-age children. Using Paper 11 as a guide, describe how you would organize the activity in three different ways depending upon your leadership style.

Module 2

Unit 1

Activity 12

Write a one page essay on what qualities you have that would make you a good SACC leader. Include also those areas where you would like to strengthen your skills. Use Paper 12 as a standard of reference.

Module 2

Unit 1

Activity 13

Read one of the books from the list of Further Readings. Write a brief summary of the main points in the book. Along with these points, include your personal impressions of what the author had to say.

Discussion Guide D

A. Allow at least 1 hour for this discussion. Bring the activity plan of the three leadership styles from Activity 10. Divide the group into three smaller groups, each representing one of the three leadership styles--authoritarian, democratic, and permissive. Role play the implmentation of the activities from each leadership style. After the role plays, convene into a large group and discuss major points and observations of the role plays.

B. Allow at least one hour for this discussion. Divide into small groups and share the major points that you summarized from your reading in Activity 12. From what you read and what the other group members share, discuss which book or books you liked best and why.

Further Readings

Baden, R., Genser, A., Leving, J., and Seligson, M. School-age child care: An action manual. Dover MA.: Auburn House, 1982.

This book is a product of the School-Age Child Care Project in Wellesley, Massachusetts. It has special sections on "What makes a good SACC leader?"

Berns, R. (1985). Child, family, and community. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

This book discusses the school-age child's emergence from the family and the necessary link between home, school, and the community. Special chapters on the teachers' role as a socializing agent details managerial and leadership qualities all SACC leaders should share.

Canter, L. and Canter, M. Assertive discipline: A take charge approach for today's educator. Santa Monica, CA: Canter and Associates, 1976.

A democratic approach to leadership that can be applied on the ballfield, in school-age activities, in classrooms, or at home. The assertive leader makes rules jointly with children and is specific about the consequences of rule infractions.

Dobson, J. (1970). Dare to discipline. Wheaton, Ill. Tyndale House.

An authoritarian approach to leadership that emphasizes love and control to produce self-controlled, respectful children.

Neill, A. S. (1977). Summerhill: A radical approach to child rearing. New York: Pocket Books.

A permissive leadership style that suggests that children will grow naturally if adults do not interfere by disciplining youngsters.

Unit Two: Working with Children
Introduction/Instructions

Working with children in SACC programs is an art. Therefore, SACC workers must be artists who can create a positive climate for children. To do this job requires more than just someone off the street. Workers must have skill at their craft. SACC workers are at different levels of experience and education. The aim of this unit is to help some SACC leaders develop their craft of working with SACC youngsters and to help others finetune theirs.

The papers in this unit revolve around five interrelated topics, all of which will help SACC leaders achieve their goal. Ways in which SACC staff can understand, enjoy, and respond to the needs of SACC children will be explored first. Through listening, watching, and talking to SACC youngsters a foundation can be constructed. Then this information can be applied to the different developmental levels of SACC children. The discipline section will present ways of helping children learn self-control so that they can benefit optimally from their SACC experiences. The art of communication with children will be discussed through four types of inappropriate communication styles, followed by more constructive ways of interacting with SACC children. A discussion of initiative and industry will provide a step-by-step method for building these positive traits into SACC children's psychosocial development. The unit will conclude with helping children understand and express feelings. This topic includes helping children pinpoint and verbalize how they feel and how to handle the emotions that emerge. Empathetic understanding is presented as a technique with benefits for SACC workers as well as one which helps children understand others' feelings. Ways of implementing these principles in the SACC curriculum, the ultimate goal of the unit, will also be discussed.

To work through this unit:

- Read Paper 13 for ways of understanding, enjoying, and responding to the needs of SACC children.
- Complete Activity 14.
- Read Paper 14 on discipline techniques.
- Read Paper 15 for styles of communicating with SACC children.
- Complete Activity 15 as an exercise in sending clear, straight forward messages.
- Read Paper 16, which details how to build initiative and industry in SACC youngsters.
- Complete Activity 16, an exercise on observing industry among schoolage children.
- Read Paper 17 for ways of helping children understand and express feelings.

Paper 13

Understanding, Enjoying, and Responding to the Needs of SACC Children

The age range of school-age children is a wide span-- 5 to 12. Therefore, SACC leaders must respond to a wide range of needs. Activities should be available that meet this wide range of needs.

SACC leaders must remember that older children require less and want less immediate supervision. Developmentally, ten-year-olds can handle and want more responsibility and leadership opportunities. Pairing a ten-year-old with a five-year-old on a particular activity can be beneficial to both ages of children in programs which use multi-age grouping such as the Parks and Recreation and Y programs. In multi-age programs, however, SACC leaders must remember that older children also prefer to spend time with children their own age so that age grouping is an important consideration as well. Both approaches to program planning can be achieved in a well-balanced program.

In other programs where children are grouped by age, such as in extended day programs, SACC leaders must be ever-aware that five-year-olds and twelve-year-olds do not like the same things. Children get bored very easily when program components are not tailored to their developmental needs and interests. Older children in particular become bored when program content becomes watered-down day care curriculum. Perhaps one of the loudest complaints by older children is that child care programs are "baby stuff." Older children are in the "gang years" where lots of peer interaction, planning, organizing, and being industrous are all important. Completing projects, organizing activities, club memberships, and more competitive games such as team sports are enjoyed by older children. Younger children, because of shorter attention spans, get restless easily and have difficulty sitting still for extremely long periods of time. Activities for them should be shorter in duration as well as match their interests and developmental levels. They like such activities as arts and crafts, storytelling, puppet shows, music, films, and time to pursue their favorite interests. Knowledge of development in the school-age years as a basis for program planning will provide a more stimulating SACC program for children and adults.

In understanding and responding to children's needs, SACC staff must secondly remember, that regardless of age, children have spent a greater portion of their day (as a rule) in highly structured learning environments where adherence to rules is strong and individual choices are few. While time for homework should be built into a good SACC program, the emphasis should be on more informal enrichment activities. In after-school programs especially, children are ready to "let loose" and to do things that interest them and allow them to let off steam. A relaxed and enjoyable SACC environment best meets the needs of school-age youngsters.

The school day is composed mostly of left-brain experiences (organized, step-by-step, logical, and convergent thinking). After-school children are ready to work on the right side of their brains (intuitive, creative, and divergent thinking). SACC programs that provide right-brain experiences for children match the kinds of activities children want and provide a better daily curriculum balance (Houston, 1982). Right-brain activities use a multisensory approach. The more senses involved in a learning experience, the more mechanisms children have for encoding information in the nervous system. Direct and concrete experiences with objects and places enhances learning, provides enjoyment, and stimulates right brain activity. Motor learning forms the basis for language learning and concept development. Physical activity and learning by doing become crucial components for these needs. Because the brain attempts to make sense out of incoming stimuli, learning occurs best when the SACC curriculum is integrated (See Unit 3 for further discussion of the integrated curriculum in SACC programs). A unit approach in which art, music, math, movement, reading, social studies, writing, and geography are interrelated provides the best learning experience. Studying zoo animals, for example, provides an opportunity for reading, counting, adding, and categorizing, moving like animals, doing art projects, writing creative stories, examining endangered species and locating the habitats of animals on maps and globes, as well as visiting animals at the zoo. In summary, a multisensory, concrete, integrated approach provides more "hooks and eyes" in the neurological system to optimize learning and meet children's needs.

Above and beyond the basic needs of safety, care, and nurturance that are the rights of all SACC children, other needs are also important. Maintaining a pulse on SACC children's intersts by listening, watching, and asking them what they're interested in, will yield valuable information for understanding and responding to their needs. Taking this information and molding it to the developmental levels of SACC children and the philosophy of SACC programs will create optimal learning conditions.

Houston, J. (1982). The possible human. Los Angeles, California: J. P. Tarcher, Inc.

Paper 14

Discipline

In SACC programs we want children to develop an internalized sense of discipline. This comes only from respect for youngsters and the implementation of a democratic leadership style (See Paper 11). SACC leaders should never use physical force when reprimanding children. Not only is it illegal, it is unwise. External force will not build internal control. The whole point of discipline is to help children progress toward self-discipline so that they need not be dependent on external forces to govern their behavior. Children need to learn to channel behavior and to control and use impulses in ways that are acceptable in society and that will help them move toward their own personal life goals (Williams and Stith, 1980).

Helping Children Learn Self-Control

SACC leaders must have respect for children. Adults must first of all be aware of their own attitudes toward youngsters. A positive adult views children as valuable individuals, each with unique qualities and skills to be optimally developed. With basic respect for children, the SACC leader strives to understand the child's wants and needs. Children, in turn, respond positively toward their leaders to move toward common group goals. Out of respect for the child, it is important to assume that children want to handle themselves in proper ways in most situations.

A basic understanding of age-appropriate behaviors needs to accompany respect for children. Knowledge of developmental levels provides SACC leaders with a guideline for establishing general expectations and a base from which to evaluate behavior within the group.

All children desire to be a part of their group, to receive attention from group leaders, and to do well in tasks they choose. While children are responsible for their behaviors, it is the responsibility of the SACC staff person to behave in a manner which encourages and supports youngsters to behave in appropriate ways. Once understanding the basic limits and expectations of the particular setting, SACC leaders can take actions with children which enhance the learning of behavior controls. SACC leaders must establish clear, reasonable expectations by saying what they mean and meaning what they say.

Youngsters want to know what is expected of them in any given situation. Some children need to have both the situation and their particular responsibility within clarified for them.In clearly defining situations and expectations, SACC leaders can provide children with lots of praise for desired behaviors. Sometimes it is assumed that children know exactly what they're expected to be doing when in fact they have not received a clear message defining their task. Sometimes children will behave contrary to the expectations conveyed to the group to see if the adult really means what he or she says. Generally, children want to follow the rules of a program, but these rules must be clearly communicated by SACC staff and infringements should be consistently dealt with.

SACC leaders must set a good example for school-age children. Leaders must be aware of their own actions, because whether or not they would choose to be role models, they in fact serve as models for children. Children receive their cues from adults. SACC leaders must be aware of the cues-- spoken and unspoken-- that they give to children.

In summary, children behave, conform, or copy their behaviors to meet the standards and ideal of the adults and groups with whom they are a part. Good behavior develops out of love, respect, and feeling for other people and groups-- not out of threats, ridicule, or fear. In the long run, children behave well because they want to, not because they have to. Self-control and discipline develops in school-age children most readily when the following points are used by SACC leaders as guidlines:

1. Help children to understand the logical consequences of their behaviors. Help them gain further insight into the reasons for their behaviors and help them in choosing behaviors that will bring smiles instead of scolds.

2. Catch the child being good. Praise and approval are more effective in promoting self-discipline than censure, blame, and punishment. Many times ignoring minor attention-seeking behaviors is the best approach.

3. Establish rules and predictable routines (but also maintain flexiblity). Whenever possible and appropriate, children themselves should have a hand in formulating necessary rules and standards of conduct. By being involved in this way, they are more likely to become committed to the rules and standards.

4. Establish a set of disciplinary consequences that students will receive if they choose to break the rules. That way, school-age children know before hand what to expect.

5. Prevention of disciplinary situations is preferred to remedying difficulties that arise. A stimulating and highly motivating SACC curriculum will eliminate most discipline problems. Discipline is most easily

attained when children sense the real worth and meaningfulness of the activities in which they engage.

6. Avoid the use of sarcasm, ridicule, and physical force. Occasionally, punishment (in the form of isolation or deprivation of privileges) may be necessary as a means of controlling undersirable behavior but it must be followed by positive actions encouraging a different behavior pattern.

7. Be a good role model for SACC children by setting positive examples for the types of behavior that are desired from them.

Reference

Williams, J., and Stith, M. (1980). Middle childhoold: Behavior and development. New York: MacMillan.

Paper 15

Communication with Children

Communication between SACC leaders and children is the most important single factor that determines the kinds of relationships that will be established and what happens to both parties in the SACC environment (Satir, 1972). Good, clear communication is crucial for a smooth-running SACC program. It paves the way for mutual understanding and allows messages to be sent and received, verbally or nonverbally. Nonverbal communication consists of body language--facial expressions, posture, and body movements. A frown or grimace communicates a totally different message to a SACC child from a smile or gentle touch on the shoulder. In contrast, verbal communication includes written or spoken words. Communication of any type is ineffective when it does not send real messages to the receiver. The following four types of communication send no real messages (Satir, 1972):

1. Placating. This type of communication occurs with pleasing and apologizing. Example: A SACC leader might say, "I'm sorry, let's stay inside today. I've got a headache. We'll postpone the game until tomorrow and stick to the schedule we drew up from then on."
2. Blaming. This type of communication occurs with attacking the other person rather than listening and trying to understand his or her point of view. Example: A SACC leader might say, "You wasted all that glue! We'll never do that activity again!"

3. Computing. This type of communication occurs through reasoning without feeling. Example: A SACC leader might say: "From what I saw, both teams argued during the entire ballgame. You need to learn better sportsmanship."

4. Distracting. This type of communication occurs with the use of words that have nothing to do with the situation. Example: A SACC leader might say to children who didn't eat all of their snack: "Children are starving to death in Ethopia."

A better way of communicating messages is called leveling in which body expression matches the words and voice tone. The combination of leveling and active listening results in clear communication (Berns, 1985).

> Active listening involves trying to understand what is being said as well as what is really meant--the verbal content as well as the emotional content. Active listening involves listening and checking on the accuracy of comprehension of the message received. Active listeners do not think of what they are going to say in rebuttal, nor do they interrupt to present their own views. They listen wholly and completely. They attend to nonverbal as well as verbal messages. (p. 137).

Another positive way of dealing with strong emotions and effectively communicating feelings is the use of "I messages," an approach developed by Thomas Gordon (1974). An "I message" is a personal statement by (in this particular case) the SACC leader which has three parts: your nonjudgmental description of the problem, its tangible effects upon you, and your feelings about it. The sending of "I messages" is an intimate form of communication in that it bares your feelings in order to raise the child's consciousness about the effects of his or her behavior. (Hipple, 1978).

This approach is based upon the belief that many children are unaware of the impact their behavior has upon others. The following example shows a group leader using "I messages" in communicating behaviors that are causing problems concerning clean-up after activities (Hipple, 1978, p. 125).

> When you leave the clay uncovered, it dries out and I have to mix a new batch which takes a lot of time. I really hate having to make new clay every day.

Once the "I message" is stated, a discussion can be held around how the problem might be resolved. Notice that this group leader's statement contained three parts: (a) nonjudgemental description of the problem ("When you leave the clay uncovered, it dries out"), (b) its tangible effects upon you ("I hate to mix a new batch which takes a lot of time"), (c) Your feelings about the situation ("I really hate having to make new clay every day").

Leveling, active listening, and using "I messages" are techniques for effective communication that SACC leaders can use with administrators, other SACC staff, parents, and SACC children. It enables SACC leaders to understand what others are feeling and thinking and to express their own thoughts and feelings in a positive and constructive way. When all members of the SACC team, and the children too, are understood and their feelings respected, everyone can work cooperatively toward and better achieve the common goals of the program.

References

Berns, R. M. (1985). *Child, family, community.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Gordon, T. (1974). *Teacher effectiveness training.* New York: Wyden.

Hipple, M. (1978). Classroom discipline problems? Fifteen humane solutions. *Childhood Education*,*55*,123-127.

Satir, V. (1972). *Peoplemaking.* Palo Alto, California: Science and Behavior Books.

Paper 16

Building Initiative and Industry

Children in school-age child care programs can range in age from 5 to 12. If you think about it, that's a wide range. Children in this age range have different psychosocial needs because they are at different developmental levels. The kindergarten children are as cognitively and emotionally different from the older children as day from night. As we have mentioned, a good SACC leder will look at these differences and make sure that activities and interactions are geared to each child's unique level. First we will look at the struggle for initiative among five-year-olds and the struggle for industry among six to twelve year olds. Next, we will consider ways SACC leaders can capitalize on these stages of development and build these positive traits into the SACC curriculum.

Initiative versus Guilt

According to developmental theorist Erik Erikson, children between the ages of three and five naturally attempt to develop a sense of initiative as opposed to guilt. The struggle between initiative and guilt typifies kindergarten children in SACC programs.

As their independence increases, kindergarten children set about showing great initiative in exploring their physical and social worlds with optimism and high energy. But as they practice their initiative, children must learn to adhere to rules and boundaries of the SACC program. These rules become internalized in the child's conscience. Conflict usually occurs as free-spirited, initiating children learn to control their own behavior and follow the rules of society. New abilities of kindergarten children permit them to think about and initiate behaviors that they may not be able to control or which are forbidden by SACC leaders and society--causing fear and guilt.

Children who resolve the conflict between initiative and guilt gradually assume responsibility and take pleasure in exploring their social and physical worlds. They become adept at finding ways to express their needs that are acceptable to self and society. When children believe they are a bother, feel guilty about initiating activity, experience repeated failure, and receive frequent criticism and severe punishment from SACC leaders, it will be difficult for them to resolve this stage successfully. In contrast, proper guidance from SACC leaders can help children resolve it successfully.

Building Initiative

SACC leaders can assist kindergarten children develop initiative by encouraging them to explore a safe and stimulating environment where success can be experienced frequently. Leaders should answer questions, allow children to contribute to meaningful projects, and reward divergent thinking and idea contributions. Encouraging children to talk about their feelings and understanding their guilt can also help them work through their struggle. Firm and reasonable limits must be set which encourage children to control their own behavior. SACC leaders who focus on the positive--what children can do instead of what they cannot do--also will realize greater success (Flake-Hobson, Robinson, & Skeen, 1983).

Erikson says that play is benefical in building initiative. SACC leaders can provide opportunities where children can play alone, and daydream. Play with other children allows youngters to work out mutual problems and learn rules and roles of their society (Flake-Hobson, Robinson, and Skeen, 1983).

Industry Versus Inferiority

Older school-age children (approximately ages 6 through 12) are in a different psychosocial period that Erikson says brings another whole set of conflicts--the struggle between industry and inferiority. You will remember from Paper 5 (Developmental Characteristics of School-Age Children) that children are learning the tools of adulthood. They are learning to become productive and competent members of society. In school they learn citizenship and respect for the rights of others; they learn basic academic skills such as reading, writing, math, computer literacy, etc., that equip them to function as industrious contributors in adult society. Industry develops through structured classroom activities during the school day. In a SACC program industry is achieved when children are tutored with their homework, when they learn give-and-take in organized games, when they create through crafts or painting and other activities such as swimming or lending a helping hand, when they learn new ways of doing things, and when they are given leadership responsibilities.

Building Industry

SACC leaders can be a major influence in helping build a sense of industry in school-age children. To encourage children in this area, SACC leaders can give support and positive feedback to children for their efforts. Children benefit when situations are structured so they can be successful in making and doing things they consider worthy. When SACC leaders recognize and approve children's efforts and products, feelings of worth and industry result.

Feelings of inferiority and inadequacy can develop when children's efforts are not praised by SACC staff members. Frequent failure and disapproval may lead children to the belief that their work is not worthwhile. Poor work habits and feelings of uselessness could result and children may begin to avoid competition, do a job only half way, or cease productivity altogether. Stereotyping, labeling, or grouping SACC children in detrimental ways can also suppress a sense of industry. Children may ultimately come to believe the label and many may give up trying to achieve at all.

Reference

Flake-Hobson, C., Robinson, B.E., and Skeen, P. (1983). *Child development and relationships*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Paper 17

Helping Children Understand and Express Feelings

A major goal of SACC leaders is to help children understand and express their feelings. Children look to their adult leaders to learn expected ways of handling emotions. Setting positive examples is a good starting point. Think about how you respond when you're angry and ask yourself, "Is this the example I want to set for school-age children?" In addition to good role modeling, leaders can help children clarify and interpret their feelings through clearly communicating their own emotions and teaching empathetic understanding.

Communicating Feelings

Often children must be helped to understand what they feel rather than hide it inside or deny feelings altogether.

> When children say they are afraid, they should not be told that there is nothing to be afraid of, or when children say they hate their little brother, they should not be told, "You don't really feel that way." Children whose feelings are discounted or denied by adults either lose confidence in themselves or lose trust in the adults. Children can be helped to know what they feel when adult's communication is a mirror. For example, to a child who is afraid, an adult can say, "You're afraid, I understand"; to a child who verbalizes hate, an adult can say, "You must be really angry right now to feel that way." When children's feelings are acknowledged and respected, children feel they are understood and that makes them feel good. (Berns, 1985,p. 138)

Many times children are confused about what they are feeling and cannot verbalize their emotions. Nonverbal behaviors (such as stomping or frowning) can serve as clues for SACC leaders to help children interpret what's going on inside of them. As you will see in a later section, various activities (such as clay molding, dramatizing, or artwork) can also help children clarify feelings and master control over them.

Empathetic Understanding

A second approach to helping children understand and express feelings is the use of empathetic understanding. When children have problems, the adult's capacity to empathize is an invaluable asset in problem solving. The human response as adult to a child in confusion, anger, loneliness, frustration--any hurt-- is to reach out with understanding of the hurt the child is feeling at that moment. The child has a right to his or her feelings.

Empathizing with children means feeling with children. In caring and feeling, SACC leaders can let the child in difficulty know he or she is not alone. SACC staff, in helping the child work through the problem in a supportive manner, has increased potential for the youngster to better handle a difficulty another time. To provide such help, the staff person must be an excellent listener. Accepting the feelings of children does not mean accepting their behavior. The helpful SACC person lets children learn they have a right to their feelings--whatever they may be--but must handle their behavior in socially acceptable ways.

Children also need to learn to empathize. School-age children are no longer egocentric as they were at ages four or five. Now that their thinking has developed, they can place themselves in some else's position and take other people's points of view. When a child lashes out in anger at another child or a larger and older child bullies a younger child, empathetic reasoning, fostered by SACC staff, can help these children understand how they would feel if the shoe were on the other foot.

Curriculum Activities

SACC leaders can capitalize on program activities to help children understand and express feelings. Leaders can carefully observe children for cues that will help them understand how a child is feeling and what problems and strengths youngsters might have. Choosing such activities as art projects, puppet shows, and individual talks with children are ways to help children express emotions. Children can learn to recognize and express feelings through the use of such ativities as painting, clay, drawing pictures, writing stories, dramatic plays, woodworking, music, and movement.

Special group discussions are also useful. For example, discussing "put downs" and the reasons that people use them (attention getting, anger at someone else, need to feel superior) facilitate understanding of others' emotions. SACC leaders could have children watch a situation comedy on television and record the "put downs" and talk about what they saw and heard the next day. Activities which instill positive feelings in children about themselves build self-esteem. There are hundreds of these activities that can be drawn upon (See Canfield and Wells, 1976, for ways of enhancing self-concept).

Books are also a good way to let children know that feelings and their expression are a healthy part of growing, even if it is a particular fear or insecurity related to their parents' broken marriage. Reading and telling stories about helping, and pointing out situations when help occurred are good ways to encourage altruism among school-age children.

Additional activities include: making up songs about different emotions in the group, using familiar tunes; using puppets to act out situations where a child is experiencing a particular emotion; and acting out situations through creative dramatics. The elmentary school counselor is also a valuable resource person who could conduct special sessions on recognizing and expressing feelings with groups of children.

When SACC leaders communicate feelings, show respect for children's emotions, practice empathetic understanding, and establish clear limits, the SACC program will sail more smoothly. All these components can be built into the SACC curriculum to produce a good experience with benefits for everyone.

References

Berns, R.M. (1985). Child, family, community. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Canfield, J., and Wells, H.C. (1976). 100 ways to enhance self-concept in the classroom. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Module 2

Unit 2

Activity 14

Activities Module Two: Unit Two

Read some of the right-brain activities from Jean Houston's *The Possible Human*. Adapt three or four of those activities for school-age children and describe how these activities can be implemented in SACC programs.

Module 2

Unit 2

Activity 15

Read each situation, examine the "You Message" in the second column, then write an "I Message" in the third column. When you have finished, compare your "I Messages" with those of others who are also completing this exercise.

Situation	You Message"	"I Message"
1. A 10-year-old child brought his "jam box" to the after-school program. The loud music was interfering with some of the other children's group play.	"Can't you be more considerate of others? Why do you have to play that thing so loud?	
2. A 7-year-old girl has been sulking all afternoon and refuses to get involved in any of the activities.	"Why don't you stop this sulking! Either brighten up or go off by yourself. You're bringing everybody else down!"	
3. An 8-year-old boy who was responsible for the playground equipment left a ball bat and glove on the field.	You're not being a responsible big boy. That's what a baby might do."	
4. A 9-year-old girl keeps interrupting her SACC leader who is conversing with another staff member.	"You're so rude! You shouldn't interrupt adults when they're talking."	

Module 2

Unit 2

Activity 16

Select a school-age child in a group setting and observe this child's sense of developing industry. Observe the child on two different days for 30 minutes. Pay particular attention to the characteristics of industry versus inferiority noted in Paper 16.

Write a one-page case study, giving examples of the child's developing industry or developing inferiority.

Discussion Guide E

A sign hangs in a Washington, D.C. toy shop that reflects changing approaches to disciplining children over the past 70 years. It reads:

1910-Spank Them
1920-Deprive Them
1930-Ignore Them
1940-Reason With Them
1950-Love Them
1960-Spank Them Lovingly
1970-The Hell With Them!
1980-

How would you characterize the 1980s? There is an abundance of books on discipline that has flooded the market. Fads in discipline styles have come and gone over the years as adults search for the best method of disciplining children. The fact is, however, there is no such thing as the best way. SACC leaders must discover the approach that works best for them, that is based on sound judgement, that matches the children's unique personalities and level of development, and that overlaps with the type of program that is being implemented.

In small groups for 30 minutes, discuss what the discipline advice should be for the 1980s in a good SACC program. In your discussion refer to the points made in Papers 13, 14, 15, 16, and 17. Come back together in a large group and share the different characterizations. Make brief notes on the main points of discussion.

Further Readings

Canfield, J., and Wells, H.C.(1976). 100 ways to enhance self-esteem in the classroom. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. This practical book is an excellent resource of ideas that will help SACC leaders create learning environments that are positive, caring, supportive, and growth promoting. Developing positive self-concepts is the major theme in many games and activities throughout this book.

Erikson, E.(1963). Childhood and society. (2nd ed.). New York: Norton. A classic book, Childhood and society, traces the stages of psychosocial development. Of particular interest here are the sections on building initiative and industry.

Gordon, T. (1974). Teacher effectiveness training. New York: Wyden. This book contains important information on communication between adults and children. The use of "I messages" is described as an important approach for expressing feelings in a constructive way.

Houston, J. (1982). The possible human. Los Angeles, CA: J.P. Tarcher. This useful book contains an array of activities for right brain development that can be adapted for use in informal settings such as the SACC program.

Williams, J., and Stith, M. (1980). Middle childhood: Behavior and development. New York: MacMillan. This book focuses on the behavior and development of school-age children. Reading this book increases understanding of school-agers. Special sections are devoted to discipline and guidance, emotions, and industry versus inferiority.

Further Readings

Module 2
Unit3

Baden, R., Genser, A., Levine J., and Seligson, M. (1982). School-age child care: An action manual. Dover, MA: Auburn House. This excellent book devotes an entire chapter to designing a SACC curriculum and activities. It includes basic program elements, planning as the first step, and specific activities for SACC programs.

Bergstrom, J. (1984). School's out--Now what? Creative choices for your child. Berkeley, CA: Ten Speed Press. This book presents activities for school-age children that would be appropriate for SACC programs. It gives resources, checklists and ideas for activities to use with school-age children.

Kamii, C., and DeVries, R. (1980). Group games in early education. Washington, D.C.: NAEYC. An excellent resource book on appropriate board games, competitive games, and other inside and outside games for school-age children.

Prescott, E., and Milich, C. (1974). School's out! Group day care for the school-age child. Pasadena, CA: Pacific Oaks. A small handbook that describes SACC curriculum and programs for children.

Unit Three: The Curriculum

Introduction/Instruction

School-age child care programs, while providing some academic time for homework and tutoring, emphasize the nonacademic areas of the curriculum. After spending a full day in school, children need time to play, interact with others, and explore other avenues of learning. Activities range from recreation and sports to arts and crafts, games, group projects, reading or story telling, music, films, field trips, completion of school assignments, and free time where children pursue their favorite pastimes.

Activities and environment are elements of curriculum. A well planned curriculum that is flexible enough to be altered on the spur of the moment, that meets the interests and developmental needs of children, and that uses a variety of techniques to integrate the child's world make up the essential ingredients of a good SACC curriculum.

This unit will describe the philosophy of the SACC programs, discuss a variety of curriculum activities, and highlight the dimensions of a good SACC program.

To work through the unit:

*Read paper 18, considering the philosophy of SACC programs.

*Complete Activity 17.

*Read Paper 19 to gain an understanding of the various curriculum activities that comprise a good SACC program.

*Complete Activity 18 referring to Paper 19 to aid you.

*Read Paper 20 to acquire knowledge of the dimensions of a good SACC program.

*Complete Activity 19. Refer to paper 20 to complete this activity.

Paper 18

Philosophy of School-Age Child Care Programs

School-age child care can be defined as any program which provides child care for elementary school children during the hours that school is not in session. Generally included are before and after school care, snow days, school vacations, and school holidays.

This type of program is usually designed around the needs of the children of working parents in a dual- or single-parent family. Typical school-age child care programs include activities such as arts, crafts, sports, field trips, supplemental learning experiences, self-care skills, club membership, quiet times, and time for homework.

The uniqueness of a high quality school-age child care program is its design to meet the developmental needs of children ages 5 through 12 through recreational and educational activities. The format for such a program allows for an informal, relaxing environment in which a child can make activity choices within a structured framework.

The philosophy of the SACC program is reflected in its policy guidelines and procedures. The need for a varied enrichment program of activities that meet the needs and interests of children of different ages, from different backgrounds, and with different capabilities is stressed throughout SACC programs. Furthermore, the theme of the uniqueness and worth of the individual child is intended to highlight the principle that children can best identify and develop their physical, cognitive, and social-emotional strengths within a safe, supportive, and enriched environment (Israelite, 1983).

Despite common philosophy and goals, SACC programs come in a variety of forms. Some are extended day programs in public schools such as the Arlington, Virginia, model now in its fifteenth year. The Y's often sponsor SACC programs in their facilities and in conjunction with public schools. Parks and recreation departments sponsor SACC programs as do day care centers, churches, and social and community services. In some parts of the country, many of these agencies have formed partnerships to implement the best quality SACC programs for children. Regardless of the sponsor, the majority of SACC programs have one theme in common: the safety, supervision, and care of school children in an enriched setting where they can learn and have fun.

References

Israelite, J. (1983). *School-age child care program*. Kansas City, MO: The Living Center for Family Enrichment.

Paper 19

Curriculum Activities

When planning and implementing a SACC curriculum, the following elements can help provide a viable program consistent with the SACC philosophy. The following is quoted from Baden et al, 1982, pp 384-86 (used with permission).

> Capitalize on the interests of children. Children should have opportunities to take part in activities that capture and extend their interests, as well as experiences that develop new ones. The staff ought to find out what excites individual children--what they want to engage in, learn more about, or explore.
>
> Consider the range of experiences an activity can provide. Many activities can be carried out as a simple "one-shot" experience. However, consider the increased learning that results when an activity is expanded to include the children from start to finish. Cooking is an excellent example. A staff member could select and prepare a recipe, write it up for the children to follow, purchase the ingredients, and take out the necessary supplies and equipment. Then, the children would do the actual cooking. A more exciting and in-depth approach might be: with staff guidance, the children decide what they want to make; they discuss what they think might be the ingredients; they research and bring in recipies; they do the math necessary to convert the recipe so that it produces the amount they need; they purchase the ingredients, organize the cooking, etc.
>
> Use the community as much as possible. This is where your outreach and relationship building efforts pay off. You can take part in already existing events (story hour at the library, skating at the park, intramural sports at the community center, classes at the Nature Center), reorganize regular events so they are specially tailored to your program (Cub Scouts meet at your school, rec department holds some classes at your site, local art center gives SACC program kids a special rate and provides class at a special time to fit your schedule,) and/or set up special experiences (trip to a parent's worksite, visit to a nearby bicycle factory, bus trip to a local organic farm).
>
> Capitalize on the myriad of opportunities that present themselves for informal, social learning. Staff in

SACC programs can use their informal environment to foster and encourage activities and discussions that deal with feelings, values, and ethical issues. For example, in one SACC program that enrolls physically handicapped children, the disabled child begins to attend the program a week later than the other children. During the first week, before the handicapped child arrives, the other children are encouraged to talk candidly about handicaps--their fears and questions--and they become somewhat sensitized to the feelings of the handicapped child. In this situation the informal learnings are limitless.

Build upon the special talents and interests of staff. Many programs try to hire people with different skills and abilities, in order to provide many options for children. Things that staff know about, care about, and are enthusiastic about will come alive and be exciting to children. (Make sure that activities are appropriate for the children's ages, and that they are consistent with your program's goals and philosophy.) A staff member who is a potter might teach interested children all about different types of clay, how to build and throw pots, about glazes, etc; a staff member who is an excellent tennis player might have a "tennis clinic" once a week; a staff member who is mechanically inclined might teach some of the older children how to make simple repairs on their bikes.

Allow for spontaneity and serendipity. Although planning is critical to a successful program, it is also important that programs be flexible enough to respond spontaneously to events or special circumstances as they arise. When the first snow falls, children--who have sat watching from their desks in school all day--will want to run and play outside; a fight on the playground may prompt an absorbing and important group discussion; an unhappy child may desperately need the undivided attention of a staff member for a "special afternoon."

Agree upon and communicate clear, consistent expectations and limits to children. Children need to know that there is a flexible yet consistent "set of rules" governing their behavior with each other, with adults, and with materials. When testing limits, children are reassured to find out that staff communicate with each other, and that they cannot go from staff member to staff member until they find one who will "let them get away with it." In such a secure environment, children know and understand the consequences of their actions.

Take an integrated, total approach to planning and carrying out the program. We urge programs to use every opportunity to make connections among things that are happening or are about to happen instead of thinking of all the different activities as independent segments--and thus fragmenting the day. If children are planning to make pinatas to give away at Christmastime, you might put out books on papier mache, as well as materials for them to practice with. You might find a film that shows how the custom came into being, and the children might spend time planning what they want to fill their pinatas with. Months later, children might be encouraged to write stories or "author" a book entitled, "How to Make a Pinata".

Balance the day's activities so that there are structured and unstructured times, teacher-directed and child-initiated experiences, and a range of activity options as well. Striking this workable balance may appear difficult, but if you consider it while you are doing the planning, it is more likely to happen. As you plan each day, ask yourselves: Are there ample opportunities for children to take initiative and carry out their own ideas? Is the afternoon too heavily teacher-directed? Do the materials available to children allow for unstructured, open-ended use? Do we have the materials and the staff to carry out activities that need some adult supervision and guidance?

References

Baden, R., Genser, A., Levine, J., & Seligson, M. (1982). School-age child care: An action manual. Dover, MA: Auburn House.

Paper 20

Dimensions of a Good SACC Program

The mainstay of SACC programs is the safety and supervision of children between the ages of 5 and 12 who otherwise would be latchkey children. SACC time is usually allocated for arts and crafts, organized games, and other recreational activities that are fun but still have learning value. According to Seligson and her colleagues (1983), good SACC programs combine the best features of child care, education, and recreation.

Perhaps one of the most important features of a SACC program is the stability it provides in children's lives. The program is not interrupted as a more informal arrangement might be as when a neighbor, relative, or friend is ill or otherwise unavailable. The continuity and dependability of SACC programs is seen as one of the major benefits of extended day as well as other SACC programs.

> Extended day programs offer children and parents a sense of security. Parents become more productive at work, as they realize that their children are assured high quality care without leaving the school grounds. These parents no longer have to leave their jobs for child care obligations or interrupt their work schedules to telephone home to make sure children are safe. Children who attend such programs no longer feel isolated from the rest of society...The extended day experience assures that the child has contact with children of various ages and with many adults. The television is no longer the child's constant companion. The child's time, like that of the parents becomes more productive. Time is spent in creative, stimulating activities which are well-organized and well-supervised. (Mills & Cooke, 1983,p.149).

Research indicates that appropriate programmatic and supervisory activities can direct school-age energies into positive channels, and help school-agers avoid or effectively deal with potential problems. Mayesky (1980), for example, found higher reading and math scores among children who attended an extended day program for a 3-year period, compared with a comparable group of children who were not enrolled. The after-school program blended child care, recreation, and academic enrichment. Mayesky attributed childrens' academic growth to the goals and designs of the program-- which included high-interest activity areas for intellectual, affective, and psychomotor learning-- and to qualified staff. She concluded that the extended day program's nonthreatening environment and high adult-child ratio also contributed to the children's achievement.

A similar study by Entwisle (1976) was a 6-month, loosely-controlled pilot study in which 40 low-income black children enrolled in an after-school care program were compared to 15 children not enrolled in the program. Program children had significantly higher grades in math and reading than children not receiving program services. The program was not a tutorial or remedial program but instead, emphasized recreational and cultural activities. Other studies have reported advantages of after-school programs in shortcutting many of the negative outcomes that are associated with being a latchkey child.

The research to date suggests that for characteristics thus far studied, children enrolled in school-age child care programs fare better than latchkey children. They are superior in academic achievement, self-reliance, and self-concept. They have fewer fears, experience less boredom and loneliness, and are less vulnerable to accidents. Their play is less restricted, and they have fewer social-emotional adjustment problems. (Robinson, Rowland & Coleman, in preparation).

References

Entwistle, B. (1976). The impact of school age day care upon achievement. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association, New York.

Mayesky, M.E., (1980). A study of academic effectiveness in a public school day care program. Phi Delta Kappan, 62, 284-285.

Mills, B.C., & Cooke, E. (1983). Extended day programs-- a place for the latchkey child. Early Development and Care, 12. 143-151.

Seligson, M, Genser, A., Gannett, E., & Gray, W. (1983). School-age child care: A policy report. Wellesley, MA: Wellesley College Center for Research on Women.

Robinson, B.E., Rowland, B.H., & Coleman, M. (in preparation). Latchkey kids: Unlocking doors for children and their families. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath and Company.

Activities Module Two: Unit Three

Module 2

Unit 3

Activity 17

Allow at least 2 hours for this activity. Visit a school-age child care program and observe the administrator, staff, and children.

A. As you observe the program in progress, what evidence of the philosophy of the program can you find in the curriculum? Use the following guidelines to carry out this activity:

1. nature of the activities
2. provisions for supervision and safety
3. the arrangement of the physical environment
4. policy guidelines and procedures
5. format of the learning environment

B. Based on your knowledge of the SACC philosophy, discuss any components you feel are absent or weak and explain why.

Module 2

Unit 3

Activity 18

Develop an activity unit for a SACC program that entails as many of the curriculum elements discussed in Paper 19 as possible. In planning your activity unit be sure to integrate experiences and utilize the community as your classroom. Use the following outline to organize your plan:

I. Goals (What is your aim?)

II. Objectives (What should children get out of these activities?)

III. Activities (How will you carry out your objectives?)

IV. Evaluation (How will you measure the success of your activities?)

V. Materials (What materials must be onhand to perform each activity?)

Module 2

Unit 3

Activity 19

A. Discuss why predictability and consistency are important dimensions of SACC programs. Base your answers from your reading of Paper 20.

B. Devise a sample daily schedule for one week similar to the one below. Your schedule should be consistent, yet flexible and should include a variety of activities that are implemented through different techniques. For example, Monday's 3:00 trip in the sample schedule might become a club meeting or guest speaker on Tuesday from 3:00 to 4:00.

Schedule for Monday

2:00	Arrival/Free Time
2:30	Snack
3:00	Activities/Field trip/ Special Visitors
4:00-5:00	Outdoor organized activities

Discussion Guide F

Allow at least 30 minutes or more for this discussion. Use the observations you made of the SACC program (Activity 17). Share your comments regarding evidence of the SACC philosophy in the curriculum and absence or weak philosophical components. This discussion should provide you with an overview of other perceptions of SACC programs.

Allow 30 to 40 minutes for the following activities:

A. In your group, exchange papers and take turns sharing the activity unit you developed for Activity 18. Using the criteria from Paper 19, objectively evaluate your partners' units. In pairs or small groups give your partners feedback based on the curriculum elements of good SACC programs.

B. Next, share with your partners the daily schedules you prepared for a week's SACC curriculum. Compare schedules in your group. Make brief notes on ideas that struck you as particularly stimulating that could be included in a weekly schedule.

Further Readings

Module 2

Unit 3

Baden, R., Genser, A., Levine, J., and Seligson, M. (1982). School-age child care: An action manual. Wellesley, Mass.: Wellesley College Center for Research on Woman. This excellent book devotes an entire chapter to designing a SACC curriculum and activities. It includes basic program elements, planning as the first step, and specific activities for SACC programs.

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Kamii, C., and DeVries, R. (1980). Group games in early education. Washington, D.C.: NAEYC. An excellent resource book on appropriate board games, competitive games, and other inside and outside games for school-age children.

Prescott, E., and Milich, C. (1974). School's out! Group day care for the school-age child. Pasadena, California: Pacific Oaks. A small handbook that describes SACC curriculum and programs for children.

MODULE THREE

THE FAMILY

Module Three: The Family

Objectives:

1. To develop an awareness of the diversity of family forms.
2. To develop an understanding of the social forces that influence family structures and behavior.
3. To examine the major theoretical frameworks by which family issues are conceptualized.
4. To develop an understanding of family dynamics.
5. To examine the relationship between the family and community.
6. To identify important issues involved in achieving and maintaining SACC parent involvement.
7. To examine the role SACC programs can play in parent education.

Module Three Pre-Test

Multiple Choice Items:

1. The family:
   - A. Is in decline.
   - B. Has abandoned its traditional functions.
   - C. Is diversifying to meet the demands of a changing society.
   - D. Both A & B

2. The best way to understand the family is through studying:
   - A. Its structure and functions
   - B. Social exchanges that take place between family members.
   - C. The roles that family members play.
   - D. All of the above

3. Parenting behavior can be influenced by:
   - A. The parent's family of origin
   - B. The child's behavior
   - C. Both of the above
   - D. Neither of the above

4. The "authoritative" parent may be described as:
   - A. A Dictator
   - B. A Communist
   - C. Democratic
   - D. None of the above

5. Discipline should:
   - A. Include physical punishment
   - B. Include clear communication
   - C. Be used to break children's spirits
   - D. All of the above

6. The most effective communication style:
   - A. Is kept superficial
   - B. Avoids discussion of "touchy" issues.
   - C. Emphasizes the issue and avoids emotions
   - D. Emphasizes both the issue and emotions

7. The "goodness of fit" between a family and community is generally assessed by:
   - A. The community standing of the family
   - B. The health of the family
   - C. The quality and number of connections between the family and community agencies and institutions.
   - D. The financial gains made by both the family and community over a given period of time.

8. Some elements to consider in planning for parent involvement in SACC programs include:
   A. Scheduling
   B. Attitudes of the staff toward parent involvement
   C. Keeping parents informed about the SACC program
   D. All of the above

9. Parent involvement in a SACC program can:
   A. Allow the staff to arrange for individual instruction.
   B. Help children adjust to forming different social relationships.
   C. Result in special programming activities
   D. All of the above

10. When planning for a Parent Education program, the planners should address which of the following topics:
   A. What will be the content of the program?
   B. Who will teach the program?
   C. How will the program be taught?
   D. All of the above.

True/False Statements:

1. ____ Today, family scholars are attempting to define *the* family form that is most typical for American society.

2. ____ Many family relationships involve a series of social exchanges by which an attempt is made to "strike a bargain."

3. ____ Parent-child relations are unidirectional with the parent always influencing the child, not vice versa.

4. ____ "Discipline" is best considered to be a type of "instruction."

5. ____ Physical punishment is at times an appropriate discipline technique.

6. ____ To be a good communicator, we must have a good self-esteem.

7. ____ "Abnormal" family behavior sometimes is a "normal" reaction to unusual stressors.

8. ____ Parent involvement in SACC programs can sometimes make parents feel less involved in their childrens' lives.

9. ____ Parents can be expected to maintain their involvement in a SACC program once they have agreed to participate.

10. ____ Parent Education programs can help publicize a SACC program and result in greater parent support for the program.

Matching:

1. ___ Families
2. ___ Role Taking
3. ___ Bidirectional Relationship
4. ___ Permissive Parenting
5. ___ Authoritarian Parenting
6. ___ Controllers
7. ___ Goodness of Fit
8. ___ Parent Space
9. ___ Speculators
10. ___ Microsystem

A. Parents place few limits on their child's behavior.

B. People who display their feelings but refuse to talk about them.

C. The social system closest to the individual.

D. Anticipating the action of others.

E. Refers to a special location for parents to store their belongings and/or meet at a SACC program.

F. Refers todiversifying family forms as opposed to one family form.

G. The child influences the parents' behavior and vice versa.

H. Parents who control all aspects of their child's behavior.

I. The ability of the family to have its needs met within the community.

J. People who will discuss a problem but not their feelings.

Identify the following:

1. Family socialization:

2. The "Information Era":

3. The "Heritage of Family Crisis":

4. Family structure-function:

5. Democratic child training:

6. Gordon's Parent Effectiveness Training:

7. "Traditionalists" vs. "the need breed":

8. Macrosystems:

9. The "sender" vs. "receive" of a message

10. The "form" of a message:

Unit One: The American Family

Introduction/Instructions

Many would have us believe the family is in decline. However, the American family in fact remains a viable American institution. It is important to consider the state of the American family today since children develop within the family setting, and families are the target of most community services. In this paper we will examine the diversity of family forms that currently exist and some of the social forces that have led to these forms. In addition, we will examine some theoretical frameworks that are used to address family issues. Finally, we will examine the potential roles parents can play in SACC programs.

To work through the unit:

- Read paper 21.
- Complete Activity 20.
- Read paper 22.
- Complete Activity 21.
- Read paper 23.
- Complete Activity 22.
- Work through the questions in Discussion Guide G with your study group.

Paper 21

Changes in the American Family

The family is "breaking down," "declining," "disintegrating." These descriptors of the family can be seen and heard daily in the media. Is the family really in decline? In this paper we will address the meaning of "family" before summarizing some of the forces that have contributed to the rise of diverse family forms. Finally, we will address the question of whether the family is in decline.

What is "Family"?

Sociologists have traditionally used four functions to define the family: (a) reproduction; (b) sexual relations; (c) economic cooperation within the larger society; (d) socialization of children (Murdock, 1949; Ogborn, 1933). Few, if any of these functions can be said to be the exclusive function of the family today.

Reproduction. With the advancement of medical technology, reproduction today can result from laboratory techniques (e.g., artifical insemination). Couples can hire "surrogate mothers" to bear their children, and an increasing number of children are being raised by unwed mothers.

Sexual relations: Sexual relations no longer take place exclusively between spouses. Frank and Enos (cited in Knox, 1983, p. 207) found that about 50 percent of the husbands and between 20 and 40 percent of the wives they studied had been involved in at least one extramarital intercourse event of some type. Such phenomena as "mate-swapping" and "sexually open relationships" also attest to the lessening of sexual relations within the family.

Economic cooperation. The family is not as economically self-sufficient and independent as in the past. The recession of the 1970's and the farm crisis of the 1980's have demonstrated the dependence of families upon the economy of society as a whole. Family today does not serve as a unified unit of either economic production or consumption. Spouses rarely work at the same job to produce the same product, and parents and children rarely spend money on the same entertainment or marketable goods (Bell, 1979, p. 5). Indeed, many marketing campaigns today target certain members of the family (e.g., children, wives) for a particular product.

Socialization. Many people believe that socialization of children is the sole remaining function of the family. In particular, the family is seen as an emotional unit that provides a nurturant function for its members. Even this belief, however, must be questioned since some would argue that the home environment is no more likely to supply emotional support than the school, church, or work place. For example, families today often have difficulty scheduling work and school tasks so that the entire family can have time together. Also, the recent attention given to family violence and child abuse calls into question how well the family is able to bear up under the stressors of contemporary family life and fulfill its nurturant role.

Summary. Families have not abandoned the above functions. Rather, other social instituions such as the schools and government have also become involved in ensuring that these functions are carried out. Given the difficulty in arriving at a clear idea of what "the family" is, however, family scholars today are stressing the diversity of "families" as opposed to the identification of one standard family form. The concept, "families" is being used not only to reflect the pluralistic society in which we live but also the family's ability to diversify itself to adapt to changing forces.

Forces Relating to Changing Families

The forces that have contributed to the rise of diverse family forms are complex. Swick and Hobson (1978) have summarized some of these forces.

Economic forces. Joan has always stayed at home while Bill, her husband, worked. Recently, however, Bill's salary has not kept up with higher prices and the family is in need of extra income. Joan has decided to help by going to work. She believes Mary, her 7 year old, is mature enough to get herself ready for school and return home after school without adult supervision. Mary is proud that her parents trust her, but she is also fearful of staying home alone and is not sure what she would do if trouble arose.

As a result of increased economic pressures, families have had to make a number of lifestyle adjustments. For example, the latchkey child may represent the prototype of a modern dilemma --- the need for families to maintain their financial stability in a time of economic pressures versus the need for children to experience childhood. Many parents, like the ones portrayed above, are deciding to seek extra family income while demanding that their children assume more responsibility for themselves.

Technological forces. Sue and Tom have begun to worry about the lack of time their family spends together. After work, Sue and Tom work-out at the spas operated by their respective companies. Joe, their 11 year old, prepares his own dinner with the help of a microwave and then plays computer games. Upon arriving home in the evening Tom likes to watch programs that he has taped on his VCR and Sue finishes office work on her home computer. There is little time for family discussion.

As technology changes so do the lifestyles of families. Technology frees family members from housework and allows them to pursue their own interests. The result is sometimes a loss of family contact. Thus, although families often have more leisure time as a result of technology, this time is not always used by families to spend more time together. Indeed, in the case portrayed above technology served to isolate family members from each other even within the home setting.

Political forces. Crystal, a 24-year-old unwed mother, feels she is in a "no-win" situation. The father of her child has never provided financial support and this has forced Crystal to depend upon government assistance. Finally, a job has become available but Chystal has learned that the cost of day care for her 4 year old would result in less income than if she remains on government assistance, and government policy prohibits Crystal from working and receiving financial support.

The debate as to the responsibility of the government to intervene in families' day-to-day operations is ongoing. Some argue that social service agencies have assumed responsibilities traditionally held by families and as a result parents are assuming less responsibility for their children. These people would argue for less government support for families. Others argue that government policy is inflexible and often prohibits nontraditional families, such as Crystal's single-parent family, from becoming self-sufficient. These people would argue that social agency policies should be made more flexible in order to reflect the diversity of families in our society and to meet the unique needs of different families.

Dual careers. Sherry has recently divorced John, her husband of six years, and was awarded custody of their 6 year old son. The divorce was mutually agreed to since John's transfer to another city would not allow Sherry to pursue her own career as in politics. Sherry and John remain friends, but Sherry is now often lonely and feels a lack of support in raising her son who has recently begun misbeaving at school.

The 1970's witnessed a number of social value changes. For example, self-fulfillment of the individual became important, and families became geographically mobile. As a result of these and other social changes, families were faced with the problem of trying to meet the needs of all family members. As in the family portrayed above, this has sometimes resulted in a decision by parents to separate in order to pursue their own career and personal interests.

Confusing roles. The numerous forces that have led to changes in the structure and operation of families have also contributed to changes in the way children, parents and relatives view their roles. Most mothers today perform many roles (e.g., career, volunteer) outside the home setting. Likewise, neither grandchildren or grandparents may be able to identify with these roles since the geographic mobility of families often prevents any direct contact between generations.

It is difficult for us to develop a sense of self-identity when we assume so many different roles within and outside the family, many of which are contradictory. For example, the father who assumes a supportive role within the family may find this role ineffective in his business relations. It may subsequently become increasingly difficult for him to separate his business role from his family role.

Is the "Family" in Decline?

Obviously, there are a number of forces that have led to changes in American families, but do these changes mean the family is in decline? One of the biggest problems in resolving this issue can be found within ourselves (Goode, 1982, p. 4). We tend to have strong emotions about the family and base our appraisal of the state of the family today on our particular family experiences. For example, those of us who were reared in families of the 1950s and 1960s may view the family as in decline as we look back with nostalgia on the "golden age" of the family. Two issues must be addressed, however, when we attempt to compare families today with the ideal family of the past.

First, family changes can be interpreted as evidence that the family is in decline or adapting, depending upon one's values. The increased divorce rate may mean that people are too selfish to commit to a long-term relationship, or it may mean that people no longer feel they must maintain a nonfulfilling and stressful relationship just to "save face." The increasing number of working mothers is related to the need for additional family income. In addition, it may mean women are becoming less concerned with providing a quality home life for their children, or it may mean women are recognizing that only by seeking employment outside the home can they be truly happy and productive as a mother and wife.

Second, the nostalgia for the "golden age" of the family rests on the assumption that the extended family with the parents, children, and grandparents residing in the same home and the father serving as the sole wage earner has been the traditional family form. This type of extended family, however, has never been widespread (Hareven, 1983). From a historical perspective, the extended family as portrayed in the TV program, "The Waltons" differed significantly from its predecessors.

Skolnick and Skolnick (1983) refer to a "heritage of family crisis," to explain that concern over the "decline" of the family has been present whenever dramatic forces in society forced a change in family lifestyles. One of the first waves of anxiety about the "decline" of the family occurred in the early 1800s with the beginning of the industrial revolution. The forces accompanying the industrial revolution included removing the father from the home and placing him in a factory, the beginning of separate values regarding women and mens' work, and the movement of families from a rural to urban setting. Many of these changes were at the time associated with such things as juvenile delinquency, crime, and mental illness.

Today, we hear similar charges (e.g., a decline in morality, less respect for order). This is not surprising since according to Naisbitt (1984) we have recently left the industrial era and entered into an information era. The information era is concerned with the creation and flow of "information," and it is best represented by the computer and telecommunication revolutions that have brought about new jobs, values, and lifestyles. Indeed, the information era has led to many of the forces discussed above.

The fast-paced world of high technology has led many people to feel socially isolated and unsure of their role in life. The relocation of companies has resulted in families becoming geographically mobile, and this has led to a loss of extended family contact. The value placed on an active, work oriented lifestyle has resulted from high pressure jobs concerned with meeting deadlines that grow steadily shorter as national and and world-wide communication capabilities increase. Technology has also led to the development of a range of recreational and leisure time devices that allow the individual to pursue his or her own personal interests, often to the exclusion of a spouse or children.

In summary, to state that the family is in decline is overly simplistic. We cannot find a solution to contemporary problems in the past. Families have always struggled with outside forces and the diversity of families seen today only reflects an adaptation to the forces accompanying the information era in which we live. While we may not be happy with the changes that have occurred within "the family," we must recognize that these changes have occurred by necessity and not by choice. The development of new support services such as the Charlotte-Mecklenburg School-Age Child Care Project can assist all "families" make the needed adjustments to their changing lifestyles.

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Paper 22

Family Theory and Application

Given the existence of diverse family forms, how can we go about making sense of the dynamics involved in different families? For example, how can we compare the structure and operation of the single-parent family with that of the two-career family? Theoretical frameworks have been developed that allow us to understand the behavior that occurs in different families. In this paper we will review four of these theoretical frameworks: structural-functionalism, social exchange, symbolic interactionism, the developmental approach. Further discussion of these frameworks can be found in family textbooks such as Eshleman (1985).

Structural-Functionalism

The basic idea behind the structural-functional approach is that there are different interrelated systems and subsystems within society. For example, siblings are a subsystem of the family, and the family is a system that is interrelated with other social systems such as religion, government, school, and business. Of interest to those who use this theory is the "function" or role that any "structure" or part of a subsystem plays in maintaining the entire system (i.e., the function that a subsystem serves in maintaining the total system).

An underlying assumption behind the structural-functional approach is that a social balance can be achieved only when all systems function together. Whatever is functional to maintain the system will continue to exist and whatever is dysfunctional will disappear. In short, behavior will continue only if it serves some purpose for the family. For example, a child's disruptive behavior may actually be unconsciously reinforced by a family. By focusing on the child's "behavior problem" the family may be avoiding more sensitive problems. In an abnormal way, the "behavior problem" is adaptive for the family.

Swick and Hobson (1978 pp 7-8) note three main categories of functions in relation to the family: (a) the function of the family for society; (b) the function of the family for self-maintenance; (c) the function of the family in regard to individual family members.

The function of the family for society. In paper 21 we reviewed the four functions sociologists have traditionally listed as defining the family. We concluded that while families continue to fulfill these functions, other social sytems also compete with the family in fulfilling these functions.

The function of the family for self-maintenance. Traditionally, division of labor according to gender was seen as a major stabilizing function for the family. The husband worked outside the home and the wife cared for the children. This differentation of roles was assumed to maintain family harmony. However, the differentation of roles has changed over the past two decades, and as a result families use a different strategy to maintain themselves.

Today, emotional nurturance or companionship is seen as the most important strategy by which the family maintains itself. Whether or not emotional nurturance will increase or decrease in importance remains to be seen. We should certainly not be surprised if some families perceive their stabilizing function as something other than emotional nurturance. For example, financial stability may be more important to some families today than emotional nurturance.

The function of the family in regard to individual family members. As in the previous category, emotional nurturance is seen as the main function families supply for their individual members. Again, however, while most would agree that companionship is a basic reason for entering into and continuing a relationship, we might find some individuals who value some other aspect of their unique family life. As families have diversified so have their individual members' values regarding the value of family life.

Exchange Approach

The key concept underlying the exchange approach is that we are basically self-centered and that we will do something only if something is done for us in return. For example, a husband might agree to pay more attention to his family life only in return for the family agreeing to allow him to choose this year's vacation spot. A child might agree to study more if the parents agree to send him or her to summer camp. Family relationships are thus seen as involving a series of exchanges in an attempt to "strike a bargain."

Exchange theory has been especially important in addressing mate selection and family power dynamics. For example, a wife who is not very interested in her marriage is seen as having more power in the marriage than her husband who is interested in maintaining the marriage. This imbalance of power may result in the wife controlling both the family and her husband. Eventually, the husband may come to resent this state of affairs, lose interest in the marriage, and subsequently gain more power from which to strike a more equal balance of control with his wife.

Likewise, a child from a divorced family may use this fact as a way to get each parent to supply her with toys and thereby demonstrate their continued love. Only when the parents join together and confront their child will a balance of power be achieved.

It is important to note that the exchange process is not necessarily a deliberate one; persons who carry out social exhanges may only be vaguely aware of what is going on. Basic to all social exchanges, however, is an ongoing evaluation of what is worth giving up in order to receive something desired in the relationship.

Symbolic Interaction Approach

The focus of symbolic interaction approach is on individuals as they interact in social roles. Underlying this theoretical framework is the assumption that each of us develops into a unique individual through the gradual process of "role taking" or anticipating the actions of others. For example, a young child may display withdrawal as a result of having anticipated his or her parents' belief that children should be "seen and not heard." We often see "role taking" in the play of young children, such as when a boy responds to a situation much like he has observed his father respond in similar situations.

The symoblic interaction approach views the family as composed of interacting personalities. Those who use this approach are interested in understanding the meaning of social interactions that occur within different families. For example, the statement, "I love you" may have different meanings for different children because of facial gestures, body movements, and other behaviors that have accompained the statement when delivered by parents. The relationship between a child and parent is thus seen as being based upon more that just the spoken word. It is also based upon a set of social symbols that allows one family member to understand another member's feelings without directly speaking to that individual.

The Developmental Approach

The developmental approach is used to divide the "typical" family life cycle into eight stages that involve the family structure expanding and then contracting: (1) the couple without children; (2) the couple in their childbearing years; (3) the couple with preschoolers; (4) the couple with school-age children; (5) the couple with adolescents; (6) the couple whose children are beginning to leave home; (7) the "empty nest" stage where all the children have left home; (8) the retirement stage where both spouses have retired. Of concern to those who use this approach is the developmental tasks that should be addressed at each stage of development. For example, a sense of trust and intimacy should ideally be formed between the married couple in stage one. Failure to accomplish tasks during a given stage can lead to problems as the family moves into later stages.

Although the developmental approach was popular at one time, today it is not widely used. The main problem with this approach is that it does not address the diverse family forms that currently exist. Its focus remains on the traditional middle-class family with two or more children.

Summary

The above theoretical frameworks can be of assistance in viewing families from different perspectives. You may find one theoretical approach more to your liking than others, or you may find different theories useful at different times. As a summary, it may be useful to remember that the structural-functional approach can help you understand the structure and function of the family as it interacts with the wider society; the exchange approach can help you understand the power dynamics of family relationships; the symbolic interaction approach can help you understand the nature of interacting roles between family members; and the developmental approach can help you understand the particular tasks families may be dealing with at a particular point in time. At the end of this unit you will have the opportunity to practice using these theoretical frameworks to address real life events.

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Paper 23

Towards a New Concept of Parenting

Most would agree that parenting today is a difficult job-----and for good reason. Some of the problems related to parenting include the rapid rate of social change that can lead to family stress, differences in the parent's "realistic" outlook on life versus the child's "idealistic" outlook on life, conflicting norms between generations in regard to such issues as sexual relations and important priorities in life, the competition of parent's values with those of other "authorities" (e.g., school, church, peers), society's setting of high standards for parents, and the geographic isolation of families from their relatives (see LeMasters and DeFrain, 1983, pp. 3-6). Given these and other pressures associated with parenting, why do we continue to assume this role? In this paper we will examine this question as well as address the common characteristics of parent-child relations and the determinants of parenting behavior. Finally, we will briefly review some contemporary parenting strategies.

Why we Become Parents

The values of a society represent important motivators behind our decision to become parents. Even within American society, however, individuals hold different values about the social meaning of parenthood. Veevers (1973) has summarized six themes that best describe the social meaning of parenthood in American society.

Characteristics of Parent-Child Relationships

While the parent-child relationship is assumed to be a "natural" interaction, few of us have examined the unique characteristics that separate this relationship from other social relationships. Some of the unique characteristics of parent-child relationships have been identified by Bigner (1985, pp. 21-25).

A bidirectional relationship. Until recently, most thought the parent-child relationship to be unidirectional with the parent the teacher and the child the learner. Actually, the parent-child relationship has been found to consist of an ongoing interaction where the child influences the behavior of the parent and vice versa. For example, the sex and temperament of the child may influence the parents' behavior just as the sex and temperament of the parent may influence the child's behavior. Thus, the parent-child relationship is bidirectional, not unidirectional.

Uncertainty over childrearing. Parents often feel insecure in deciding how they should prepare their children for the future. This problem is most often the result of parents being unable to forsee how important social systems (e.g., school, business, government) may change over time. For example, should today's parents prepare children to be conservative in their handling of money, or in twenty years will the social structures of business and the government reinforce only those who are willing to take risks with their money?

Unique pressures of parenthood. Parenthood carries a number of unique pressures. Parenthood, unlike other roles in society, is irreversible once birth occurs. Females are socialized to care for children, while males are not. However, some women are beginning to reject the idea that they should assume sole responsibility for child care, and others are rejecting the pressures of motherhood altogether. Some men refuse to assume child care responsibilities, while others admit to feeling unsure of themselves when caring for children.

Given these and other unique pressures, it should not be surprising that some adults are questioning whether they should become parents. Adults are beginning to weigh the costs and rewards of having a child against other options in life. For example, women are weighing the rewards of motherhood against the costs to their career. Males are weighing the rewards of fatherhood against the costs to the family's income and the likelihood that they will be expected to assume parenting roles they may feel unprepared or unwilling to fulfill.

Developmental roles of parenthood. Since the child influences parents and vice versa, we should expect parenthood to be a developmental role that changes as the child matures. As the family moves through its different stages of development, both parents and children must alter their behaviors in order to accomplish the tasks at hand. This process ensures that the family and its individuals continue a never-ending process of growth.

Summary: These characteristics are basic to most if not all parent-child relationships. In addition, there are many different determinants that help form the unique parenting behaviors seen in families.

Determinants of Parenting Behavior

Hammer and Turner (1985, pp. 24-29) have classified some of the factors contributing to the development of parenting behavior. We will review four of these factors.

The family of origin. Many of the behaviors we bring to parenting are a result of the events we experienced in our own family. For example, if our parents believed in "spare the rod and spoil the child," chances are we will also adopt this view. The influence of the family of origin on parenting behavior is perhaps most evident in the finding that abusive parents tend to have been abused themselves as children.

The personality of the parent. The way parents feel about themselves may influence their relationship with their child and their attitudes toward childrearing. For example, the parents' ability to tolerate noise, their preference for order and cleanliness, and their degree of assertiveness can all be expected to shape their attitudes toward parenting.

Obviously, there is no "normal" or right way to parent. Rather, parenting will vary not only from family to family but also between husband and wife within any given family. The personality of the child also influences parenting. One set of parents may find a child's personality unacceptable while another set of parents may find the same child a delight. Because of different personalities, some parents find it difficult to agree upon what parenting behaviors to use. Failure to come to an agreement on this issue can lead to inconsistent and/or contradictory parenting behavior that the child may find confusing.

Culture. A number of cultural factors may influence parenting behavior. In one study, Bigner and his colleagues (1982) found that parents who lived in a rural setting viewed childhood curiosity, creativity, persistence, responsibility, and self-reliance as important childhood traits. Parents who lived in an urban setting viewed a child's ability to behave, get along with others, be considerate of others' rights, and tolerate those different from themselves as important traits. In the same study, Mexican-American and Black parents valued self-control, good manners, and responsible behavior in their children. White parents valued assertiveness, curiosity, persistence, and the ability to get along with others in their children.

Other aspects of culture such as social class, religion, peer values, and the particular composition of the family can influence parenting behavior. For example, the number of children in a family will in part determine the way in which family order is maintained. Likewise, some religious beliefs may lead to strict parenting behavior, while other religious beliefs may lead to more permissive parenting behavior.

Mass media. The influence of television, magazines, and books on parenting behavior is also important. It is difficult not to turn on the television or pick up a magazine without finding advice on the "correct" way to raise children. Parents often accept this type of media advice without assessing how it fits into their own value system.

Summary. These determinants help to reinforce the idea that there is no one standard family form. Given the numerous factors influencing parenting behavior we should not be suprised to find as many family forms as there are parents. All parents, however, can make use of some common parenting strategies.

Strategies for Parenting

There are a number of strategies for parenting that have been widely used. We will discuss four.

Behavior modification. The basic philosophy behind behavior modification is that parents can "control" their child's behavior by selectively reinforcing desired behavior. "Reinforcements" may include social praise after the child cleans his or her room, or giving the child something that is valued (e.g., television time, toy, snack). Care must be taken in choosing the reinforcer (some are more effective than others, depending upon the particular child's preferences), timing of the reinforcement (continuous reinforcement is less effective over time than irregular reinforcement), and determining what is actually being reinforced (children who misbehave may do so to receive attention).

Democratic child training. This strategy views the family setting as the child's model of social interaction. For example, a child's "life plan" refers to the ways in which he or she makes decisions about how to behave in order to reach a goal. The child may learn that only by showing off, crying, or using some other drastic behavior can he or she obtain the parent's attention. This type of behavior may subsequently be used in settings outside the home.

Parents using democratic child training are encouraged to allow children to experience the logical consequences of their behavior when it is safe to do so. This serves to place the consequences of children's behaviors on themselves and not the parents. Also, parents are asked to encourage children both when they fail as well as when they accomplish a task.

Ginnott's humanistic strategy. This strategy is concerned with teaching parents how to communicate effectively with their children. The major assumption behind this strategy is that communication should be based on respect for the child. Subsequently, parents are taught not to criticize but to express their feelings in neutral ways. For example, if angry the parent should state, "I am angry at what you have done, not at you." Likewise, Ginott warns against using threats (they invite children to misbehave), bribes (their results are short-lived), and sarcasm (it only makes children feel bad and they may stop listening to you).

Other practices include getting on the child's eye level (this holds the child's attention) and allowing the child to make decisions that are age appropriate (for a young child ask, "Do you want to wear the blue or red dress?" not "What do you want to wear?"). Finally, limits that are clearly stated help the child guide his or her behavior. The parent would thus explain, "Hitting can hurt so we don't do that. If you want to hit something use the cushion." To simply state, "Stop hitting" would be ineffective both in setting limits and in offering an explanation of why hitting is not allowed.

Gordon's parent effectiveness training: This strategy also stresses effective communication skills and problem solving. For example, the parent is taught to use a technique called "active listening" to help the child resolve a problem. Active listening involves the parent filtering the child's communication and reflecting back to the child the key feelings that are being expressed. This technique places responsibility on the child to search for his or her own solutions.

Parents are also taught to separate "I" from "you" messages. "I" messages are used to communicate feelings to the child ("I can't concentrate because your radio is too loud." "I get angry when you come home late without calling."). "You" messages indicate the parent is listening to the child and encourages the child to keep talking and thinking about what he or she is saying ("You sound very frustrated that the class decided not to accept your idea." "You're suggesting that I should pay more attention to you.").

When confronted with a conflict, Gordon (1975, p.237) suggests that together the parents and children follow six steps: (a) identify and define the conflict; (b) develop alternative solutions; (c) discuss and evaluate these solutions; (d) decide upon the best solution for all involved; (e) develop ways to implement the solution; (f) evaluate the success of the solution. This strategy is viewed as helping the child develop responsibility, cognitive skills, positive communication skills, autonomous behavior, and it decreases the parents need to use power.

Summary: The choice of which of the above strategies to use would of course depend upon the needs and characteristics of the particular family. You will have the opportunity to practice using some of these strategies at the end of this unit.

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Module 3
Unit 1
Activity 20

Consider the American Family in the year 2001. Address the following questions.

1. What major function(s) will the family as a whole have in society?
2. What will our attitudes be toward children? adolescents? the elderly?
3. What are some roles children, adolescents, and the elderly may have that they do not have today?

Module 3
Unit 1
Activity 21

Consider the following family forms: (a) single-parent (mother) family; (b) two parent, middle-class family. Using the family theories, address the following questions in relation to each of these family forms.

1. How might the structures and functions of these families differ?
2. How might the roles of the individuals in each of these families differ?
3. How might the developmental stages of these family forms differ?
4. What would be the negative and/or positive consequences of these differences?

Module 3
Unit 1
Activity 22

Arrange to interview at least two parents using the following questions:

1. How many children do you have? ________________

2. Why did you become a parent? ________________________________

____

____

3. (If one child, ask) Do you think your child's behavior influenced your parenting behavior?

____ Yes ____ No

If Yes, How? ____

____

3a. (If more than one child, ask) How has the behavior of your children differed?

____

____

____

Did your parenting behavior change?

____ Yes ____ No

If yes, in what ways? __________________________________

____

____

(SAVE THIS ACTIVITY FOR DISCUSSION GUIDE G)

Discussion Guide G

You should allow at least 30 minutes for this discussion. Bring your activity notes and have papers 21, 22, and 23 ready for reference. Encourage your colleagues to express their opinions.

1. Is the family in a worse state today than in the past? Why?

2. In what ways do families continue to fulfill their traditional functions? Will families become increasingly more or less involved in fulfilling these functions?

3. Divide your group into subgroups. Each subgroup take one family theory and use it to ask two questions you would like to have answered about John's family:

> John, a six-year-old, is an only child. His father is a banker and his mother a secretary. Both parents are involved in the SACC program. Both parents are somewhat overprotective of John. John has routinely misbehaved when left alone at the SACC program site. He is very demanding and sometimes aggressive. You have mentioned this to John's parents, but they do not appear to be concerned.

4. Compare group notes from the interviews with parents.
    a. What were the most common reasons given for becoming a parent?
    b. What different parenting styles were used?
    c. How did parents see their childrens' behavior influencing their parenting behavior?

5. Consider the different reasons people become parents. What are some of the negative consequences that may result from these reasons in regard to parent-child relations?

Further Readings

Module 3
Unit 1

Eshleman, J. R. (1978). The family: An introduction (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

This text examines the structural and behavioral characteristics of American families. Different life-styles are addressed as are such timely topics as sex role differences in marriages and minority families. Families in the middle and later years are also examined.

Hutter, M. (1981). The changing family. New York: John Wiley.

This text compares families of different nations and from different social classes. The focus of the text is common family dynamics among different family forms.

Garbarino, J. (1982). Children and families in the social environment. New York: Aldine.

A systems approach is used to consider families within the greater society. Both the developing family and child are addressed. The implications of social policy on families and children is also addressed.

Unit Two: Parent-Community Relations

Introduction/Instructions

Since development takes place within the family setting, family dynamics can help us understand the behavior of children. By understanding family dynamics we can gain also better understanding of how best to work with parents. Some of the more important family dynamics will be considered in this unit. Parenting styles and discipline will be examined. Types of communication styles and their importance will also be discussed. Finally, the interaction of family with society will be considered in order to highlight out the various forces that influence parent-child and family-community relations.

To work through the unit:

- Read Paper 24.
- Complete Activity 23.
- Read Paper 25.
- Complete Activity 24.
- Read Paper 26.
- Complete Activity 25.
- View the family videotape.
- Complete Activity 26.
- Work through Discussion Guide H with your study group.

Paper 24

Parenting Styles

Parenting styles refer to the types of discipline used to guide children. The importance of understanding parenting styles cannot be overstated. Parents sometimes object to a teacher or leader's philosophy of discipline because it conflicts with the guidance techniques used at home. In this paper we will first address the purpose of discipline and some guidelines to follow in administering discipline. Next we will examine the controversial issue of punishment. Finally, we will examine three common parenting styles.

The Purpose of Discipline.

The term "discipline" is derived from an old English word meaning "instruction." To many adults, however, discipine is misinterpreted to mean punishment when in fact punishment and discipline have little in common. We will return to the issue of punishment later. For now, we will review the four factors that characterize effective discipline (see Bigner, 1985, pp. 147-151).

Clear communication. There must be clear communication between the child and parent if the child is to understand what is and is not appropriate. The use of such commands as "don't do that" is ineffective as a discipline technique since it does not tell the child what to do. It is more effective to tell the child what to do.

Control of behavior. Discipline should help children to control their behavior and to work toward goals in a socially appropriate way. Children often lack the knowledge and experience, however, to behave appropriately, and we should be aware of the developmental capabilities of a child before deciding that the observed behavior is an act of willful misbehavior. In short, we should not expect children to behave as adults.

Moderation. Discipline should be positive, moderate, and reasonable. Again, the goal is to teach children to behave in socially correct ways, not to "break their spirit." Effective discipline should be based on positive interactions with the child and not negative commands, insults, or physical force.

Understanding. We need to understand the reason behind children's behavior before drawing conclusions. Misbehavior may result from poor health, feelings of inadequacy or no self-control, and/or attempts to gain attention. By understanding the feelings and motivation behind children's behavior we can avoid jumping to faulty conclusions.

Punishment

Most authorities advise against the use of punishment, since it is only a short-cut solution to dealing with one's anger. Physical punishment is never appropriate. To turn punishment into discipline, the following guidelines should be followed (see Hamner & Turner, 1985, pp. 44-47).

Groundrules. Before using punishment, the child should know what the groundrules for behavior are and what consequences will occur if the rules are broken. Without groundrules punishment will most likely be seen by the child as arbitrary, leading to a sense of insecurity about how he or she should behave.

Delivery.: Punishment should follow the breaking of a groundrule as soon as is possible. If a mother states, "Wait until your father gets home," the child will actually be punished all day as he or she anticipates the arrival of the father. The child will learn to fear the father. Finally, very young children who have short memories may not clearly understand the connection behind an act committed at seven in the morning and punishment that occurs at six in the evening.

Understanding. Take time to determine if the punishment is really deserved. Children will react much more negatively to punishment they feel is unfair than to punishment they feel they deserve.

Appropriate punishment. To be effective, punishment should be related to the act that broke the groundrule. For example, if a child hits another child, the child should be deprived of the opportunity to play with others for a brief time. If a child purposely breaks a lamp during an angry outburst, the child can be required to clean up the mess and to begin saving part of his or her allowance or earnings to buy a new lamp.

In both these cases the punishment fits the misdeed. As a result, the child will gain a better understanding of how negative consequences follow negative behavior. On the other hand, nondirected punishment such a spanking and sending the child to his or her room does not relate directly to the misdeed and the child subsequently has more difficulty in appreciating the realistic consequences of his or her behavior.

Administration. Punishment should be administed within an atmosphere of love and respect. Parents can create this type atmosphere by remaining objective and calm. That is, parents should separate the child as a person from his or her misbehavior. Respect for the child is another essential element when using punishment. Indeed, mild punishment is most effective when administered infrequently by a parent who is loved and respected.

On the other hand, when parents strike out in anger children learn only that aggressive behavior is appropriate when one is frustrated. Children learn nothing about controlling their behavior or how to resolve their anger in a socially acceptable manner.

Summary. As previously mentioned, punishment as it is traditionally thought of should not be considered synonomous with discipline, and physical punishment is especially *bad* for children. Parents can avoid using punishment by employing two simple procedures. First, parents should be *consistent* in setting groundrules of behavior, and enforcing these rules through having children experience the logical and realistic consequences of their behavior. Second, parents should create a *supportive* home environment in which children feel they can trust and respect others. Children in turn will respect and trust the groundrules set forth in the home.

Parenting Styles

Parenting styles not only reflect parental values regarding parent-child relations but also one's approach to life in general. We will review two schemes that have been used to classify parenting styles.

General Mills Scheme. In 1977, the General Mills Corporation (see Raising Children in a Changing Society, 1977) obtained a national sample of 1,230 families with children under age 13 to identify and compare contemporary parenting styles. Two parenting styles were identified. The "traditionalists" viewed as important values: marriage, religion, saving money, hard work, and financial security. The "new breed," on the other hand, viewed as not important: marriage, religion, saving money, patriotism, and success. Obviously, these two groups of parents had different priorities in life. These priorities are reflected in the group's respective parenting styles. Among other things, the "traditionalists" included parents who were child-oriented and willing to sacrifice for their child, were in charge and nonpermissive, believed in "old-fashioned" upbringing, viewed parenthood as an important value, and believed girls and boys should be raised differently. In contrast, the "new breed" included parents who were self-oriented and not willing to sacrifice for their children, did not punish their children, allowed their children to make choices, viewed parenthood as an option in life and not a social responsibility, and believed girls and boys should be raised alike.

Baumrind's Scheme. Baumrind (1966) has described three parenting styles that have become well known. The "authoritarian" parent is similar to the "traditionalist." This parent places high value on obedience. Physical punishment and other forceful methods are often used to maintain control over the child, there is little effort to explain groundrules, and the child is allowed little independence. An authoritarian parent might respond to a child's questioning of rules with the statement, "Because I said so."

The "permissive" parent is similar to the "new breed." This parent encourages autonomous behavior and relies on reasoning rather than absolute power to control the child. Likewise, few demands are made on the child since the parent is not interested in being seen as an authority figure. The parent also frequently consults with the child on family decisions. For example, the parent would, as much as possible, allow the child to form his or her own rules of behavior.

The "authoritative" parent combines the best features of the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. This parent values autonomous behavior in children but also believes in setting limits. The authoritative parent would encourage the child to help formulate family rules, but once formed the parent would take steps to make sure the rules are followed.

The authoritative parent also makes use of both reason and control in supportive ways that communicate respect. For example, this parent might respond to a child's questioning of rules by stating, "That is the rule we all agreed upon. I am willing to discuss why you think it is no longer a good rule, but I cannot promise that we can change it."

Summary. Very few parents actually fall exclusively into one of the above categories. It may even be possible that some parents change their parenting style as they become older and/or have more children. The particular parenting style used is less important than the parents being consistent in their use of groundrules and demonstrating support and respect for the child. It is thus inappropriate to make value judgements as to which parenting style is the "best."

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Paper 25

Communication Styles

Should the wife ask for a raise? Why isn't Joe doing well in school? Does the school have the right to discipline children? Who will budget the family's income? The manner in which these questions are resolved depends upon the type of communication that takes place within and outside the family.

Communication styles develop primarily within the context of the family. In this paper we will examine the elements and types of communication. Next we will examine how communication is interpreted and discuss some ways in which communication is avoided. Factors that make for effective communication will also be summarized. Finally, communication styles will be described.

The Elements and Types of Communication

Communication refers to an interactive process whereby we exchange feelings, ideas, desires, facts, opinions, and other information. Four basic elements comprise any communication: the sender, the receiver, the content of the message, and the form of the message (McCubbin & Dahl, 1985, p. 174). The sender and receiver refer to the individuals who determine the form and content of communication. They are the focus of this paper.

The *content* of a message can generally be divided into four classes. First, a message can supply factual information ("Meet me at school tonight at six"). Second, a message can convey emotion ("I love you"). Third, a message can convey power or authority ("You should not stay out late without calling").

Finally, a message can convey values or personal desires ("I think I am old enough to stay out late without calling").

The form of a message can be of two types---verbal and nonverbal. Each of these forms can be divided into subtypes. For example, besides the spoken work, other verbal forms of communication include grunts, hisses, crys, and laughter. Likewise, nonverbal communication can extend beyond written messages to include such things as body language, facial gestures, smiles, and yawns. The sender thus has both verbal and nonverbal ways to convey a message. As important as the sender's message is the receiver's interpretation of the message.

Interpretation of Communication

McCubbin and Dahl (1985, p. 174) have summarized some of the ways in which a message may be interpreted by the receiver. These include the words themselves, the tone of voice in which the words are spoken, and the physical and psychological context in which communication takes place. For example, the tone of voice in which the statement, "Will you please close the door?" is spoken determines to a large degree whether the receiver interpets the message as a request or command. Likewise, whether a husband states, "Go ahead honey, I'm listening." while facing or turning away from his spouse will determine how the spouse interpets this message. Finally, the psychological context of communication can include the sender's and receiver's unique personalities, their feelings about each other, and the setting in which communication takes place.

Part of the way in which we learn to use the various forms of communication and interpret the content of a message is through socialization and experience. Likewise, we can also learn ways to avoid communication.

Avoiding Communication

Satir (1972) has noted some of the common ways we avoid communication in family relationships. The "distractor" responds to a message by ignoring it or in some way demonstrating that it is of little importance. The husband who assures his spouse he is listening while he continues to type on his computer is an example of a more subtle way of avoiding communication. More obvious distracting tactics would include turning up the radio, singing, and turning one's back to the sender of the message.

A "computing" response involves the receiver of a message acting cool, rational, factual, or like a computer. The Mr. Spock character on the television program Star Trek frequently used a computing response when he would reply, "That is not logical." Like Mr. Spock's companions, the receiver of a computing message can become very frustrated. The "blamer" avoids communication by finding fault with the sender. A wife who responds to her husband's request to stop humming while he is talking with, "You always have to have it your way" would be avoiding communication by personally attacking her husband.

Finally,the "placator" avoids communication in a passive-aggressive way. The wife may state, "I was wrong and you were right" to end a conversation. The hostile tone of her voice, however, will convey that what she thinks is different from what she says.

The best way to ensure that communication continues is to "level" or be honest in self-disclosing true feelings and thoughts. To level means the individual must feel confident enough to fully share him or herself and risk embarrassment or a hostile reaction. Self-confidence is thus one of many factors that can lead to effective communication.

Effective Communication

To be an effective communicator means more than being able to speak clearly. As implied above, communication is as much a psychological interaction as a verbal interaction. In this section we will summarize four factors that influence communication.

Self-Awareness. According to Hamner and Turner (1985, p. 109), self-awareness is the first step to effective communication. Self-awareness refers to the individual being in touch with his or her true feelings. For example, we sometimes speak before really knowing how we feel. The wife who in anger attacks her husband for coming home late may really be feeling rejection, but because she is not in touch with her feelings of rejection the husband is likely to respond only to her displayed anger. Likewise, we sometimes rely on stereotypes of how we should feel rather than getting in touch with our true feelings, and this often leads to miscommunication. For example, spouses often hear they should develop and pursue personal interests apart from their mate. A husband who prefers to do things with his spouse may thus not express his true feelings out of a fear that his wife will find him "out of touch" with the times. The wife, however, may in fact also prefer to do things with her husband.

Self-Confidence. To be an effective communicator we must feel self-confident enough to share feelings and thoughts that may be unpopular or that could result in embarrassment. As previoulsly mentioned, there is personal risk in self-disclosing personal feelings, but when we are confident about our self-worth we are more willing to take this risk. Likewise, self-confident people tend to be better at listening to others as well as in sharing their own ideas (Burr, 1976).

Awareness of others. Because communication is an interaction between two or more people we must also be aware of the feelings and thoughts of others. As pointed out above, what is said is not always the same as what is received. The receiver thus needs to be able to clarify or check-out the content of a message.

"Active listening" (i.e., reflecting back to the sender your interpretation of his or her message) is one way to become more aware of another's feelings and thoughts. "Role reversal" is also helpful. This technique involves the sender and receiver temporarily changing roles to better understand each other's point of view. For example, if a wife and husband cannot understand why they hold opposing views, they might switch roles and argue from the other's point of view. This technique is particularly useful in developing "empathy" (i.e., the ability to put oneself in someone else's place and feel what they feel). Those who can develop empathy can contribute to effective communication by being better able to predict how someone else might respond to a situation, being able to respect another's feelings, and being more sensitve to another's needs.

Communication Styles

Hawkins, Weisberg, and Ray (1980) have described four types of communication styles that are commonly used in marriage and family relationships. Each style provides insight into the diversity that can be found in marriages and families.

Conventional. Conventional communicators engage in a superficial type of communication. They are good at sharing small-talk and discussing everday events ("How do you like the weather?"), but they are unable to discuss emotional or personal issues that require self-disclosing personal feelings. There is not much chance that things will change in a marriage and family if this communication style predominates.

Controllers. Controllers are very good at displaying their feelings, but they refuse to discuss the underlying problem. People who use this type of communication style may operate on the belief, "Actions speak louder than words." For example, a husband may slam doors and isolate himself when confronting a problem but resent his wife questioning him about his behavior. He may even deny that there is a problem. Obviously, this style of communication puts the sender of a message in control of the situation but also creates a confusing set of signals for the receiver.

Speculators.: Speculators are just the opposite of controllers. They will discuss a problem but not show their feelings. Speculators are sometimes described by their friends and family as emotionally strong since they are able to discuss a problem in a rational way ("Perhaps I would have been given the promotion if I had been more assertive.") but never share their innermost feelings.

Contactful communicators: This person talks about both the problem and his or her feelings. The contactful communicator thus has all the ingredients for effective communication. This person is self-aware of his or her true feelings and self-confident enough to share these feelings. This person is also aware of other's feelings and is able to display empathy. When contactful communication is the style of communication used by two or more people, the chances increase that options to a dilemma can be discussed and a plan for action developed.

Summary. It is often difficult to change communication styles, since they form over a number of years. By being aware of the mechanics of communication, however, we can become better communicators.

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Paper 26

Goodness of Fit between the Family and Community

The interdependence between the family and community is sometimes referred to as the "goodness of fit" between the behavior and needs of the family and the ability and/or willingness of the community to meet these behaviors and needs. Community workers are thus part of the interlocking family and community systems that influence child development. The community recreation director, health nurse, teacher, volunteer, and aide all have direct contact with children, and in some cases it is this contact that supplies the sole link between the family and community.

In this paper we will examine the concept, "goodness of fit" from within the family and in relation to the family and community. The goal of this paper is to point out how family values and behavior can contribute to or detract from its "goodness of fit" with the community.

Goodness of Fit Within the Family

Today, parent-child relationships are understood as bidirectional. That is, a child may influence the behavior of parents just as parents may influence the behavior of the child. For example, some infants are fussy, resistant to physical touch, and do not readily respond to parents' attempts to soothe their discomfort. If a child were this type of infant, parents may act more aggressively in controlling the child than they would if the child had been more receptive to the parents' behavior in infancy. The behavior of the infant in conjunction with the expectations and personalities of the parents can thus create a parent-child environment that may set the stage for later family relations.

On the other hand, the different developmental tasks that children and parents deal with are usually complimentary and make for a positive "goodness of fit" within the family system. According to Erikson's theory of psychosocial development, most parents are in the developmental stage called "generativity versus self-absorption" during which they have a need to take care of and generate something in their lives that is worthwhile. Children can be in one of several stages of social development. Younger children are concerned with "initiative" or assuming control over their lives in initiating activities. School-age children are concerned with "industry" or learning to be creative and productive individuals.

In short, while parents are often at a stage where they have a need to protect, guide, and give of themselves, children are at a stage where they have a need to be protected from overstepping their capabilities, guided in their behavior, and reinforced for taking initiative and being industrious. The goodness of fit between the psychological needs of children and their parents helps maintain family stability by giving each member a sense of purpose, support, and self-worth. One goal of the Charlotte-Mecklenburg SACC project is to foster this kind of goodness of fit within the family.

Goodness of Fit Between the Family and Community

Bronfenbrenner (1979) has developed a scheme to characterize the various social systems influencing child development and family relations. The scheme portrays the complexity of family ties to the community.

Miscrosystem. The microsystem is the system closest to the individual. It includes those systems in which the individual is directly involved on a daily basis. For the young child, the primary microsystem would be the family. Later, other microsystems would be added (e.g. school, church, peers). The child's relationships within each of these microsystems may be quite different. In some cases the differences can lead to childhood stress. For example, the "punk look" that the 11 year-old's peer group idolizes may be at odds with the family's values. The child must not only learn to handle relationships within each microsystem but also learn to compare and balance the information and values that flow between these microsystems.

Mesosystem. The mesosystem refers to the relationship between an individual's microsystems. The "goodness of fit" between the family and community is frequently assessed by the quality and number of connections between the child's family (one microsystem) and other microsystems (e.g., school, government, business, health agencies, recreational agencies, etc.).

The central issue concerning the mesosystem is that all microsystems should work together for the good of the child and family. Another goal of the Charlotte-Mecklenburg SACC Project is to construct a strong mesosystem for children through the networking of resources of various community volunteers and agencies (i.e., different microsystems).

Exosystem. The exosystem refers to those systems in which the child and/or family is not directly involved, but whose policies influence their well-being. For example, the parent's workplace is an exosystem for the child since its policies regarding sick leave and conformity to work hours can influence the child's safety and well-being in the home environment. Likewise, the local or state school board may make policies regarding the school curriculum that can be of benefit or harm to children with special needs. Advocates for children build bridges between the child's exosystems, mesosystems and microsystems by advocating policies that benefit child and family development.

Macrosystem. The macrosystem refers to the values endorsed by a culture or subculture. The macrosystem is, in fact, the blueprint by which we conduct our daily lives. Macrosystems form the basis by which families justify their behavior. Increased family mobility, self-fulfillment, working mothers, and the acceptance of technology into our homes are some of the values currently endorsed within our society. These values have led to options for families that have never before existed. The way in which families adapt to these value changes can influence their outlook on life, child-rearing practices, life priorities, management of money, and so on.

Macrosystems reflect the diversity found in our society. For example, values endorsed by one social class regarding parenting may not be the same as those endorsed by another social class. We may also find differences in marriages, families, and parent-child relationships according to values associated with families geographic area of residence, ethnic origin, stage of development, and/or structural composition.

Summary

We sometimes judge the behavior of children and families without considering the wider context of special needs, demands, and interests that led to the observed behavior. For example, minority and nontraditional families are often faced with unique living pressures that many of us have little awareness of. The "abnormal" behavior we sometimes see in these families can be a result of their attempt to adapt to pressures that threaten to disrupt their lives. Thus, a first step in being a more effective child care professional is to appreciate each family's unique set of microsystems, mesosystems, exosystem and macrosystem.

References

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). _The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design_. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Activities: Module 3: Unit Two

Module 3
Unit 2
Activity 23

Think of examples you have seen where discipline was used inappropriately. List these situations along with the ways in which they could have been handled more appropriately.

Module 3
Unit 2
Activity 24

Address the following questions:

1. What communication style(s) do you most frequently use?
2. Is your communication style similar or different from that used by your parents?
3. How does your communication style interfere with your ability to communicate effectively?

Module 3
Unit 2
Activity 25

List the microsystems that currently affect you. Address the following questions:

1. How do the values and demands of your microsystems conflict?
2. How do the values and demands of your microsystems compliment one another?
3. How do you handle conflicting information from your microsystems?

Module 3
Unit 2
Activity 26

View the videotape in which parents are interviewed. Discuss the following with your group members.

1. How might the various family microsystems and mesosystems of the depicted families differ?
2. How might these differences influence parent-child relationships in terms of communication, discipline, and the child's assigned responsibilities within the home?
3. What are the strongest and weakest characteristics of each family form depicted in the videotape? Explain.

Discussion Guide H

You should allow at least 30 minutes for this discussion. Bring your activity notes and have papers 24, 25, and 26 ready for reference. Encourage your colleagues to express their opinions.

1. Divide your group into three subgroups. List the advantages and disadvantages of being an: (a) authoritarian parent---subgroup #1; (b) permissive parent---subgroup #2; (c) authoritative parent---subgroup #3. Each subgroup should share their lists with the other subgroups.

2. Remain in your three subgroups. Each person share with their subgroup the ways in which your microsystems conflict and compliment each other. Compare similarities and differences. Pay particular notice to the way in which different people manage to balance the different information and values that come from their various microsystems.

3. Divide your group into two subgroups. Develop the "ideal" microsystem, mesosytesm, exosystem, and macrosystem for the following two family forms: (a) single parent family---subgroup #1; (b) two-career, middle-class family---subgroup #2.

4. Divide your group into pairs. Each pair select some combination of communication styles to role play. Following each role play, the group as a whole should (a) attempt to identify what communication styles were being role played, and (b) suggest ways in which the communication that was role played could have been improved.

Further Readings

Module 3
Unit 2

Gottman, J. M., & Porterfield, A. L. (1981). Communicative competence in the nonverbal behavior of married couples. *Journal of Marriage and the Family 43*, 817-824.

This classic study investigates the relationship between marital satisfactgion and spouses' ability to understand each other's nonverbal communication.

Bell, R. Q. (1971). Stimulus control of parent or caretaker behavior by offspring. *Developmental Psychology, 4,* 63-72.

This study summarizes children's influence on parent behavior. It is particularly useful in understanding the bidirectional relationship that exists between parents and children.

Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology Monographs, 4,* 1-103.

This study summarizes the three parenting styles (authoritarian, permissive, authoritative) and their relationship to children's behavior.

Unit Three: Parent Involvement in School Age Child Care

Introduction/Instructions

Parent involvement in SACC programs can be of vital importance to their success. Parental involvement can increase the resources of the SACC program and allow for more community input regarding program development and operation. In this unit we will discuss the recruitment and maintenance of parent involvement in SACC programs. We will also address the role SACC programs can play in parenting education.

To work through the unit:

- Read Paper 27 and Paper 28.
- Complete Activity 27.
- Read Paper 29.
- Complete Activity 28.
- Work through the questions in Discussion Guide I with your study group.

Paper 27
Achieving Parent Involvement

Parent involvement is being given increasing attention by educators and other professionals who work with children. In this paper we will discuss why parent involvement is important to community programs like the Charlotte-Mecklenburg SACC project. Next we will discuss some of the popular arguments against and for involving parents in childrens' programs. The practical logistics of planning for parent involvement will also be discussed, followed by a brief summary of common techniques used in recruiting parents.

Why is Parent Involvement Important?

The family has lost many of the functions it traditionally held. Parent involvement can thus supply families with a greater sense of involvement in their childrens' lives. Parent involvement can also diminish guilt feelings that parents may feel toward the time they give to work and civic activities that detract from time with their children.

Parents are also more likely to support a program that they are directly involved in. In particular, parents can better appreciate the successes and needs of the program and be motivated to assist in promoting its welfare.

Finally, research has suggested that parents are the most important characters in the education of children. Those parents who are involved in a community program can extend its goals to the home setting. Children will subsequently receive consistent enriching support and instruction both within and outside the home setting. Nedler and McAfee (1979, pp. 78-83) have examined arguments for and against parent involvement in children's programs. Some of these are summarized below.

Arguments Against Parent Involvement

Not everyone approves of parent involvement in childrens' programs. It will be helpful to examine some the more popular reasons given by Nedler and McAfee (1979, pp. 78-80) for this position.

Training. A common criticism from professionals is that parents are not trained to work with children and can be disruptive by interfering with the program's daily operation. However, orientation meetings and other training classes can be conducted to educate parents about the program's curriculum and philosophy.

Transportation. Transportation is a problem for many families. The work and social schedules of parents frequently prevent them from attending their child's program. Car pools, night and weekend events, babysitting services within the program, and monthly schedules that allow parents to sign up for activities in advance are some ways to help parents plan for transportation to the program.

Disruptions. Another common complaint by professionals is that the presence of parents is enough to disrupt the program's activities. For example, the parent's child may try to test program groundrules when his or her parent is present. Clearly stating and consistently enforcing groundrules can help prevent children from misbehaving when a new person is introduced into the program. Likewise, parents need to be made aware of program rules.

Tensions. The involvement of parents in a program may cause some staff to worry that they cannot be effective because of a need to keep up an act while parents are present. For example, some staff may be afraid to enforce program groundrules for fear that the parent will view them as overbearing. Again, if parents are to be effectively used, they cannot be viewed as "outsiders." Through orientation meetings and ongoing training parents can become important members of the staff.

The Contribution of Parents

Parent involvement can pay off. Once the staff has worked through concerns such as those listed above they are usually able to identify the advantages of having parents participate in the program. Nedler and McAfee (1979, pp. 80-83) have summarized the many advantages to parent involvement in children's programs.

Individual Instruction. Parents can allow the professional staff to break down large groups into smaller ones and to even spend time in one-on-one instruction. For example, parents can help prepare materials or supervise ongoing activities while freeing staff to plan or conduct special activities.

Adjustment. The presence of parents in the community program helps children adapt to different personalities. Experience in forming different interpersonal relationships contributes to children's socialization.

Special Talents. The special interests and talents of parents offers community programs a resource that should be taken advantage of, especially since parents rarely turn down an invitation to be a guest in their child's program. Children with special needs, the presentation of special activities, and the chance for unusual field trips can all be addressed if the staff is aware of the background of parents who have children in their program.

Planning for Parent Involvement

Before recruitment of parents can begin staff members need to have an idea of the purpose of having parents take part in the program. Without some guide to parent involvement the staff may be unsure of how to effectively use parents. Nedler and McAfee (1979, pp. 118-120) have listed a number of issues that need to be addressed before recruiting parents.

Setting. What is the setting in which the SACC progam is to be conducted? What special talents or interests does the setting require? These questions will allow staff to get a feeling for the types of roles parents may assume. For example, a sport program may at first seem to require only parents having an interest in athletics. However many parents who are not personally interested in sports can also assist by keeping score, acting as a manager, providing refreshments, or serving as supporters.

In short, while the setting of the program can be useful in getting a feel for how to involve parents, it should not result in the exclusion of parents. Rather, it will be necessary to take a broad view of the setting so that all parents can contribute to the success of the program.

Age of Children. What is the age group to be included in the program? How will age differences be handled? Questions dealing with program activities as it relates to children's ages can be useful in assigning parents to particular groups of children or to particular activities. For example, some parents may prefer to work with children similar in age to their own child. Other parents may want to work with older or younger children. Still other parents may be more intersted in the type of activity than the age of children.

Location. Is the program located in a rural area or in the city? Are children bused to the center or do parents bring them to the center? Transportation may limit the ability of some parents to become involved in the program, and it may be necessary to help parents think of creative ways to get to the program. The bus system and car pooling are more obvious possibilities. A "family or neighborhood walk" is a more creative way to get groups of parents who do not live too far away to attend the program.

Goal Understanding the goals of the program can help in the assignment of parents to particular roles or activities. For example, one goal of the Charlotte-Mecklenburg SACC project is to provide children with a safe, supportive, and enriched environment when they are not in school. Parents can help meet this goal by (a) completing medical forms for the program or enrolling in a weekend first aid class (safety); (b) taking part in parent education or discussion groups or acting as a resource for field trips and special activities (support); (c) sharing their special talents with the children (enrichment). Still another goal might be to help build family relations. To fulfill this goal parents might be asked to help coordinate monthly discussions on parent-child issues, monthly family night dinners or weekend family games or picnics, and so no.

Recruitment Goals

Recruitment techniques should be planned so the entire community is reached. Nonparents or expectant parents who may like to participate in the program should be given the opportunity to do so. Some of the most common techniques used to recruit parents and volunteers follow (see Nedler and McAfee, 1979, pp. 84-86).

Registration. During the child's registration into the program parents may be invited to take part in the SACC program and be given a brochure explaining some of the ways in which they can be of assistance. This brochure might include a form for the parents to complete that includes information about their special talents and interests. The information can be used by the staff to plan special activities and/or to assign parents to activities or roles that they will most enjoy.

Media. Brochures, posters, newspaper letters and articles, and radio and television interviews are all effective in recruiting parents. Very often staff are sought out by the media or find themselves in a media situation. They should take advantage of these opportunities to promote their program and voice their willingness to have parents involved in the program.

Newsletters. Weekly or monthly newsletters pertaining to the activities and events of the program can also be used to recruit parents. For example, newsletters might include a calender of upcoming parent discussion groups and a list of special ways parents can contribute to the program.

Social Occasions. Special occasions (e.g., banquets, picnics, open house) represent an excellent opportunity to meet parents and invite their participation. These occasions can be very persuading as parents see others reaping the benefits of their involvement through receiving special citations and socializing with new friends.

Summary

Parent recruitment is one factor in the success of any community program for children. However, the staff must be willing to communicate and work with parents if recruitment efforts are to pay off. The above information and suggestions should form a base from which to play for parent involvement in a way that will contribute to the growth of the program, parents, and children.

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Paper 28

Maintaining Parent Involvement

Some SACC programs find it difficult to maintain parent involvement. In this paper we will discuss some of the reasons behind parent apathy in regard to SACC programs and steps to take to ensure continued parent support.

Scheduling

The SACC schedule will need to be flexible enough to allow parents to fit their complex life into the schedule of the SACC program. A calender of monthly events can allow parents to build time into their schedule to participate in program activities.

Consultant Role

Some parents feel threatened working in their child's program due to past negative experiences with other child care professionals. The staff can help parents feel a part of the program by assuming a consultant role. This role would involve the staff seeking out dialogue with parents rather than lecturing them. Likewise, this role would entail the staff viewing parents as "professional child rearers." This perspective will allow for a cooperative, warm, and spontaneous relationship between staff and parents. It should also foster an open line of communication between parents and staff.

Communication

Perhaps the most common problem staff of SACC programs have with parents is communication. Staff members should not only be in tune with "what" they say but "how" they say it. Factors such as tone and quality of voice, body posture, facial expressions, physical appearance, eye contact, and physical distance from parents when speaking can all affect the quality of communication. Staff members should use language that is simple, precise, and void of educational or technical jargon. They should also dress appropriately and appear relaxed but attentive. If available, audio-visual aids can be useful in giving staff feedback as to their communication styles.

Meetings

Parents may withdraw support for a SACC program as a result of a particular meeting. When conducting a parent-staff meeting, the room should be comfortable and void of distractions. The conversation should not be rushed or combative. Likewise, the staff should not sit behind a desk or place any other barrier (e.g., notepad) between themselves and the parents. Rather, all participants in the meeting should sit in a circle, on a couch, or in some other "neutral" seating arrangement.

The focus of the meeting should be positive. Even if the purpose of the meeting is based on some complaint, the staff should take care to stress the positive implications that arise from the meeting and not dwell on who is at fault.

Parent Contact

Parent apathy is often a result of a lack of information about the SACC program. Parents can be kept informed about the SACC program in formal and informal ways. Formal techniques might include newsletters, a parents' bulletin board, telephone calls, and a suggestion box. Formal techniques by themselves, however, keep parents and staff isolated from each other. Informal contacts can add a needed dimension to parent contactwith the SACC program. Informal contacts might include spontaneous conversation with parents when they are at the program site, social coffees, and pictures or videotapes of their child's activities in the program. Likewise, children themselves are excellent publicity agents for SACC programs. Their enthusiasm for the program can go a long way in keeping their parents interested in the welfare of the program.

Parent Space

Parents who are involved in the SACC program need to have a separate space of their own. This might include something as elaborate as a parent lounge or something as simple as a corner with a parent's bullentin board and coffee machine. The message to be conveyed is that the parents are special and valued colleagues.

Recognition

It is important to not only assign roles that parents will enjoy and can handle, but to also consider their need to experience changes in their routine. Care should be taken to talk with parents to assess their need to perhaps switch to another activity, age group, or support task. It is important to give parents immediate feedback regarding their performance. Statements of appreciation are strong motivators for parents continuing their support of the SACC program. It may even be possible to hold annual banquets were each parent is recognized for their unique contribution (e.g., tutor, activity director, supplied refreshments etc.) to the success of the SACC program.

Summary

Maintenance of parent involvement in SACC programs does not have to be a problem. Through understanding the special interests of parents, they can be assigned tasks and roles that will contribute to their own self-esteem and widen the experiences of the children in the SACC program. Likewise, staff must accept the complexity of parent's schedules and not force their participation. If parents are treated with respect, they will continue to serve as a valuable support network.

Paper 29

Parent Education

Parent education programs have flourished over the past decade appearing in churches, community centers, school, and guidance centers (Lombana, 1983, p. 138). Part of the interest in parent education is the support many parents feel they need in rearing children in a rapidly changing society. Although it is assumed that everyone will become a parent, we do little to prepare individuals for the reality of parenthood.

In this paper we will discuss what the philosophy of parent education should be and some of the advantages of a SACC based parent education program. In addition, we will examine a number of organizational issues that make for an effective parent education program.

A Philosophy of SACC-Based Parent Education Programs

The goal of parent education should go beyond "how to" issues. Factual information should be presented with an emphasis on responsible decision making by the parents as to what practices fit their value system and the needs of their particular family. In short, there is no one way to parent. By following this philosophy, arguments can be avoided and parents will feel freer to examine their parenting behavior in light of the information that is presented.

Advantages of SACC-Based Parent Education Programs

Why should a SACC program sponsor a parent education program? Lombana (1983, p. 139) has summarized some advantages of a school sponsoring a parent education based program. These advantages would also be applicable to a SACC program. First, parent education classes can obviously facilitate communication between the SACC staff and parents. Second, parents will become less defensive in their child rearing practices as they discuss and formulate ideas regarding parenting. Their self-confidence will increase, making for a more positive, honest, and sharing parent-staff relationship. Third, parent education is a cost-effective service that demonstrates the SACC program's commitment to child development. The message coming from a SACC based parent education program is that although the staff recognizes child development takes place in more than one setting, parents play the most important role in mediating the child's development. Finally, parent education programs allow staff and community professionals to expand their daily roles and enhance their professional image.

Planning

There are a number of issues that must be considered in planning for a SACC based parent education program.

Content. The content of a parent education program should come from the parents themselves. This will ensure interest and attendance. All parents can be asked to list issues they would like to have discussed. It may be necessary to categorize suggestions into common themes that can later be tied together. For example, discipline, communication, and sex-role development topics can all be tied together under a heading, "Social Development." These same topics might also be discussed under a later heading, "Cognitive Development." It is important that while all topics of interest to the parents are discussed, there is an overall picture of how each topic relates to the "whole child" (i.e., cognitive, physical, and social-emotional development).

Parent education leaders should also be willing to build upon their presentation, since parents may decide they would like more classes on a certain topic. It may even be possible to set up separate parent groups that will use their interest in some special topic (e.g., missing children) to develop an activity for the children in the SACC program. This is, in fact, a good example of how parent education classes can result in parents making a valuable contribution to SACC program development.

Class leaders. Class leaders for the parent education classes should have a general knowledge of child and family development, and be especially knowledgeable of their particular topic. They should also be able to handle spontaneous questions that may relate to their topic. Finally, class leaders should know how to structure classes not only to deliver factual information but also to givethe parents the opportunity to apply this information.

It may be necessary to go to the community to find class leaders for some parent education classes. Most professionals will be happy to conduct a class in their area of specialization for no or a minimal fee. Local universities and colleges, as well as community social service offices are ideal sources from which to recruit class leaders. Once a class leader is located it will be helpful to keep a resource file on this person. This may include his or her address, qualifications, and special areas of interest.

Groupings. To begin, classes may need to be grouped according to the age level of the parent's children. This arrangement will allow the class leader and parents to develop a close working relationship by focussing on some common issues of interest. Later, this grouping may be enlarged to meet the growing needs and interests of the individual groups.

Methods

The presentation of parent education information should be both multisensory and experiential. That is, more than one of the five senses should be used when teaching, and the parents should have an opportunity to apply the information they have gained so that it has practical implications.

Presentation of information. Lectures are a beginning point in conveying information. However, if used alone lectures become boring. Printed material should always accompany any presentation, and it should include the major points of the issue at hand. It may also include home exercises, further readings, community resource information, and issues for further thought. Printed material should be kept on file at the SACC center for future classes.

Films and television shows are also effective in conveying factual information or as a prelude to a discussion topic. Indeed, a discussion of the major points of the film should always be planned following its showing.

It is difficult to understand how our behavior relates to some parenting issues, such as communication styles, parenting styles, and behavior management. Demonstrations can help parents understand the principles underlying these topics. Demonstrations can also help parents understand the implications behind the appropriate and inappropriate application of these principles. Videotapes are ideal in allowing parents to see themselves role-playing situations that call forth the principles that have been discussed in class.

Finally, field trips can help parents relate classroom information to the real world. Field trips are also excellent ways for the community to get involved in the SACC program and for parents to arrange for discussion groups based on the observations of their field trip.

Application. The application of information is an important part of the learning process. The information presented in parent education classes can be applied in a number of ways. Small group discussions are useful in that parents can share their values and interpretations of the information presented in class. Individual and/or group projects help parents apply information in a real life setting. Games and role-plays can help parents practice complex and newly acquired skills, such as new communication or behavior management techniques.

Summary

Parent education can be a valuable component of SACC programs. For example, it can reinforce the curriculum of the program, resulting in children being treated in a more consistent manner both at the SACC center and in their homes. Parent education classes also demonstrate to parents the sincerity of the SACC program in promoting a quality life for children and parents.

References

Lombana, J. H. (1983). Home-school partnerships: Guidelines and strategies for educators. New York: Grune & Stratton.

Module 3
Unit 3
Activity 27

Use the following questionniare to interview three parents:

1. Would you be willing to be a parent volunteer at the ________ __________________ SACC program?

____ Yes ____ No

2. How often would you be able to volunteer your time?

________ times per _________

________ (day or days of week)

________ (hours of day)

3. What special interests, hobbies or special skills could you share with the children? ____

____

4. Children find adults' occupations very interesting. What could you share with the children about your job? ________________

____

5. In what other ways would you like to help?

_____ Arts and Crafts
_____ Reading
_____ Tutoring
_____ Music
_____ Supervising children on the playground
_____ Helping children cook
_____ Helping to make instructional material (games, puppets, bullentin boards)
_____ Assist with field trips
_____ Other (please explain ______________________________

____

6. Do you have any other comments or suggestions you would like to make about the SACC program?

Activity 3
Unit 3
Activity 28

Interview three parents about what parent-child and/or family topics they would like to have presented at the SACC program. Use the following format.

1. The ________________ SACC program is interested in having a "parent's night" where special topics could be presented and discussed. What topics would you like to have presented?

_____ Child Cognitive Development
_____ Child Social Development
_____ Child Health
_____ Effective Disipline
_____ Parent-Child Communication
_____ Missing Children
_____ Planning for Safe Home When Parent are Away
_____ Parenting Strategies
_____ Children and the Media
_____ Other (please explain ______________________________

____

Use this information to identify community professionals who could address these topics. Save this activity for Discussion Guide I.

Discussion Guide I

You should allow at least 30 minutes for this discussion. Bring your activity notes and have papers 27, 28, and 29 ready for reference. Encourage your colleagues to express their opinions.

1. Divide your group into two subgroups. Compare interview notes regarding parent involvement in a SACC program. Use the interviews to outline how the parents could be used in a SACC program.

2. Remain in your two subgroups. Each subgroup use the information collected from interviewing parents and community professionals to develop a brochure. Include in your brochure the date, time, location, and nature of topics that could be presented. Also include the purpose of the topics, the qualifications of the presenters, who can attend, and something about the SACC program in general. Determine how you would evaluate the effectiveness of the workshops.

Further Readings

Module 3
Unit 3

Croft, D. J. (1979). *Parents and teachers: A resource book for home, school, and community relations*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

This text is supplies both conceptual and practical information for those interested in developing a meaningful relations between the home and community agency.

Coletta, A. J. (1977). *Working together: A guide to parent involvement*. Atlanta: Humanics.

A straighforward, applied text for achieving and maintaining parent involvement.

Nedler, S. E., & McAfee, O. (1979). *Working with parents: Guidelines for early childhood and elementary teachers*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

An excellent resource book that covers a range of topics from planning for parent involvement to providing concrete examples of different approaches to parent involvement.

MODULE FOUR: THE ADMINISTRATOR

Objectives

1. To provide administrators of school age child care programs with a comprehensive body of reliable and practical information they can use in discharging their responsibilities.

2. To explore and develop policies to recruit, select, and orient well-qualified staff for all positions.

3. To build a base for SACC administrators from which to establish employment practices to ensure efficient operations.

4. To develop skills for dealing with staff, volunteers, parents, and the community-at-large for the good of the program.

5. To lay the groundwork for sound fiscal management to include budgeting and annual reporting.

6. To establish procedures for conducting the day-to-day program in a positive environment of safety, support, and care.

Module Four Pre-Test

Multiple Choice Items:

1. The implementation of a SACC curriculum may take the forms of:
   A. Independent projects
   B. Field Trips
   C. Interest Centers
   D. All of the above

2. The physical facility of a SACC program should:
   A. Ideally be shared with other programs
   B. Consider the needs of children
   C. Make any alterations needed
   D. All of the above

3. In case of suspected child abuse, the staff members of a SACC program should:
   A. Report the case directly to the community service office that handles child abuse cases
   B. Report the case directly to his/her supervisor
   C. Question the child
   D. Question the suspected abuser

4. Evaluation of a SACC program should include:
   A. The staff
   B. The program
   C. The children
   D. All of the above

5. SACC administrators should be able to work with
   A. Staff members
   B. Parents
   C. Children
   D. All of the above

6. What type of communication style is demonstrated by the following statement..."I am concerned about your staff. I sometimes feel they need to be more attentive to children's needs."
   A. Superficial
   B. Command
   C. Intellectual
   D. Caring

7. Low risk styles of communication inlcude:
   A. Superficial and caring
   B. Command and Intellectual
   C. Superficial and Intellectual
   D. Caring and Commanding

8. One of the first steps in recruiting staff for a SACC program should be:
   A. Development of job descriptions
   B. Conducting interviews
   C. Announcing job openings
   D. None of the above

9. Characteristics of SACC staff should include:
   A. Knowledge of developmental characteristics of school-age children
   B. Sense of humor
   C. A only
   D. A & B

10. SACC program can save money by:
   A. Using senior adults as staff
   B. Using volunteers from colleges and the community
   C. Collaborating with other community agencies
   D. All of the above

True/False Statements:

1. ___ An "integrated day" should be avoided in SACC programs.

2. ___ Field trips are ideal "natural laboratories" for children to try out their skills in novel situations.

3. ___ Children should be allowed to "own" or "mark" parts of the SACC facility space.

4. ___ Parents should be supplied with those program policies that relate to health, safety, and transportation.

5. ___ A "Caring" style of communication is also a risky style of communication.

6. ___ The focus of a "Caring" style of communication is the speaker him/herself.

7. ___ Many SACC programs do not need an orientation program.

8. ___ A budget should be considered as a type of financial management plan.

9. ___ Many parents do not have the background or experience to compare the benefits and problems inherent in existing SACC programs.

10. ___ SACC staff should be flexible in their behavior and planning.

Matching:

1. Balanced Day ___
2. Health File ___
3. Child Abuse ___
4. Quality Assurance ___
5. Intellectual Communication Style ___
6. Conducting an Interview ___
7. Orientation ___
8. Budget ___
9. Job Description ___
10. Funding Sources ___

A. Contains information needed to act if child suddenly becomes ill or is hurt.

B. Is based on a sound evaluation plan.

C. Involves both structured and unstructured activities; teacher and child initiated activities

D. Should not be determined by SACC staff

E.Contains roles involved in a given position

F. Process of getting to know the nature of a given SACC program

G. Involves both the SACC administrator and recruit asking questions

H.Would include, government funds, parent fees, in-kind contributions, and support from community industries

I. Focus is on the delivery of factual information

J. Contains a coherent set of managerial procedures

Identify the Following:

1. Curriculum Elements
2. Interest Centers
3. Quality Health
4. Performance Evaluation
5. Superficial Style of Communication

6. SACC Administrator

7. Caring Style of Communication

8. Volunteer

9. Site Director

10. Leader/Teacher

Unit One: The Administrator

Introduction/Instructions

A good SACC administrator is the cornerstone upon which a solid program is built. Open lines of communication must run through the SACC hierarchy from top to bottom, and it is the SACC administrator who sets the tone for such constructive communication. The SACC administrator must possess qualities befitting one who can handle the wide-ranging responsibilities of directing a SACC program. And the administrator must have skills of recruitment, selection, and orientation of staff.

The unit will include a discussion of those qualities that make a good SACC administrator. Methods of communicating with staff will be explored. Finally, the processes of recruiting, selecting, and orienting staff will be examined.

To work through the unit:

- Read Paper 30, focusing on the qualities that a good SACC administrator should possess.
- Complete Activity 29.
- Read Paper 31 to determine ways of communicating with staff.
- Complete Activity 30.
- Read Paper 32 on the recruitment, selection, and orientation of staff.
- Complete Activity 31.

Paper 30

What Makes a Good SACC Administrator?

The SACC administrator, as in any program, is the captain of the ship. The direction in which he or she steers the vessel determines the success of the program. Thus, the SACC administrator must be a special, highly qualified person with a wide range of experience and skills, who can plan programs, form policies, and make decisions from day to day.

SACC administrators must be adults who can manage a program on a daily basis, democratically making sound decisions and solving problems as they arise. They must handle sometimes delicate situations diplomatically and be able to delegate authority. They must be people who can communicate well with others, who can give and receive constructive feedback. In addition to working well with staff, SACC administrators must be able to interact with other administrative personnel, community agencies, parents, and governmental funding sources.

SACC administrators should understand children (how they grow, develop, and learn) and maintain a pulse on children's activities on a regular basis. They must understand and implement the SACC philosophy (See Paper 18) rather than foster a lifeless, unstimulating program for children. They should be familiar with the nature of the curriculum, curriculum planning, and curriculum implementation.

Poor administrators, because of the nature of their work, lose touch with the needs and interests of children and become consumed by the daily bureaucratic paperwork. Such oversight can seriously damage the outcome of a SACC program as when inappropriate policy and procedures filter down to the staff and children. In contrast, good SACC administrators have prior experience working with children, managing staff, and training in the area of human services or child care. SACC administrators must be able to design and implement staff development which also requires practical experience in working with school-age youngsters. Knowledge of the curriculum is imperative so that SACC administrators can train staff, guide them, and answer their questions; consult with parents and with other professionals; and provide space, materials, and equipment needed by staff to carry out the curriculum (Streets, 1982). The ability to evaluate staff fairly and to self-evaluate are also important qualities to have. Skills at assessing program outcomes and maintaining records and forms are also part of the every day requirements.

SACC administrators must possess skills of understanding people and knowing the types of personnel that best match the philosophy of a good SACC program. The ability to interview and hire qualified staff is essential. Good SACC leaders are perceived as leaders who are approchable and accessible to staff, parents, children, and other administrative officials.

The following checklist summarizes the characteristics that good SACC administrators should possess:

1. Good evaluator
2. Good at public relations
3. Background and/or experience with school-age children
4. Supportive of staff
5. Administrative experience

6. Parent involvement specialist
7. Dedicated to purpose and philsophy of SACC program
8. Fortitude of body and spirit
9. Community-concerned
10. Open communication up and down the hierarchy of command
11. Tact and diplomacy
12. Good verbal skills
13. Good role model for staff
14. Good program organizer
15. Persistent
16. Good listener
17. Considerate of staff and children
18. Actively involved in curriculum implementation
19. Self-confident
20. Flexible, yet assertive in maintaining quality control

References

Streets, D. (1982). *Administering day care and preschool programs* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Paper 31

Communicating with Staff*

People have been communicating with others for years. Everyone has developed some effective communication skills and others that are not so effective. Translating the human goal to communicate effectively with other people into a system for accomplishing that goal requires the development and use of appropriate communication styles. The communication styles described in this paper can be used to enhance administrator-staff relationships.

Four basic styles of communication have been identified (Miller, Nunnally, and Wackman, 1975). The effective use of these four styles is a requisite for meaningful administrator-staff interaction. The following are examples of statements that might be made to staff using each of the four styles of communication:

STYLE I (Superficial)

"Ms. Jackson, I like your new haircut!"

"The weather has been bad all week, hasn't it? These children get really wild when they can't play outside."

STYLE II (Command)

"You must let James get by with murder. He's always in the wrong place at the wrong time."

"Don't you ever take your children on a field trip?"

STYLE III (Intellectual)

"It is important that we consider the psychologist's recommendations and all other alternatives carefully before we make a decision about Ron's entering the SACC program."

"In the course I am taking, I learned that watching television for a long period of time can cause children to become passive."

STYLE IV (Caring)

"I am concerned about Timmy. Sometimes he seems so tired after school. I am worried that he isn't getting enough to eat or enough rest."

"I have some concerns about your SACC group. I wonder if the curriculum is really meeting their needs."

An examination of the communication styles reveals that each style serves a distinct purpose. For example, Style I is an informal style. It is the type of talking that is done at an open house or when people are just visiting. It is not very useful for solving problems.

Style II is a command style. People often use this style when they are angry or are trying to defend themselves or to persuade others to see things their way. This style often hurts people or causes them to feel angry or defensive.

Style III is a factual-information style. It is usually helpful in solving problems, but sometimes people may become intimidated if they are given information they cannot understand.

Style IV is a caring, open, and authentic style. When people use this style, they share feelings and personal information and they ask others to share their feelings and concerns. Styles three and four used together are the best combination for effective problem solving.

Most of us know how to use Style I because we have practiced it frequently in social encounters. And this is an important style. Someone who cannot "make small talk" will be exceedingly uncomfortable on many of the social occasions in our society. The important thing to know is when to use this style and when another style would be more appropriate.

Style I is a very "low risk" style. Little information is shared while using this style, so it is rather superficial. Therefore, Style I is not a good problem-solving style, but it is an excellent style to use an icebreaker when people are first meeting. In SACC administrator-staff communications, Style I would best be used during casual encounters, or at the beginning of a conference.

Style II, the command style, is another style which can sometimes be used effectively. For example, if administrators and staff are working on a Halloween carnival, the SACC administrator (or even a staff member) may be giving orders to the others. Giving orders in this situation helps get things done. This would be an effective use of Style II.

On the other hand, a SACC administrator may use Style II in trying to force a staff member to change. The command style used ineffectively may precipitate defensive reactions among staff. Thus Style II is a "high risk" style and should be used with caution. It is also a style which provides very little factual or personal information to others.

Style III, the intellectual style, can be used for gathering factual, impersonal information for problem solving. Although Style III has the advantage of objectifying a problem situation, it also can be used to avoid personalizing a predicament. This style is usually a "low risk" style since very little personal information is shared. When used to an extreme, this style can become a factor in dehumanizing the administrator-staff relationship. This style can become a "high risk" style when people utilize it to dehumanize themselves or others. It can also be damaging to justify their position without regard to the ideas of others.

Style IV is a caring, open, and authentic style. Much personal information is shared in this style. It is one which many people have not practiced and therefore cannot use effectively. A caring style, when used in combination with the impersonal facts and information gathered in the intellectual style, is essential for solving problems which involve parents, staff, administrators, and children and their relationships.

Style IV is a risky style in that people using it open themselves up and report lots of information about personal feelings, thoughts, and intentions. However, it is such a poweful tool of communication that the risks can be worth taking. The caring style will be discussed in more detail since it is such an important style in interpersonal relations.

A caring style requires four sets of skills: Listening, Self-disclosure, Shared Meaning, and Combining the three previous skill-sets. Listening skills involve attending to the ideas of another person. Planning what you will say next (as many administrators do) while another is talking, is not listening. Skills of self-disclosure include being awre of self-information and being willing and able to share that self-information with others.

A caring style also requires shared meaning. The skill to be acquired in this area is to receive the actual message sent by the other. This requires careful listening on the part of the administrator or staff person (whoever is the sender). In practicing shared meaning, the sender sends an important message to the receiver. For example, a parent might say to an administrator, "Delores, my daughter told me that all she does after school is play." A SACC administrator's immediate reaction might be to get defensive and to verbally attack the parent or child.

The skills of shared meaning would help prevent this defensive behavior. The administrator could say, "I heard you say that Delores said we play all day in our after school program. I interpret this to mean that you don't think that play is appropriate in SACC programs. Is that right?

Only through additional questions and answers and establishing a shared meaning can the administrator and parent realize that the administrator sees play as an integral part of the SACC program. What Delores described as play may involve many learning experiences for her.

Finally, the use of Style IV requires administrators and staff to integrate the skills of listening, self-disclosure, shared meaning, and a caring attitude toward people as the communication process is actualized. Unfortunately, many adults have adopted a command or intellectual or superficial style in defense of self rather than to sharing their ideas and feelings in an open fashion. Inherent in the use of Style IV is a requirement that administrators and staff "risk" themselves in interactive relations with one another.

Communication is not always a smooth process. In some situations, a Style II commanding style is required in order to raise our consciousness about a problem and in most problem situations some Style III intellectualization is required to sort out the issues and arrive at conclusions. Other times Styles I and IV may be more appropriate. As administrators and staff search for ways to help SACC children, they will find their own styles of relating the link to improving conditions for children in SACC programs.

* This paper was adapted from Flake-Hobson and Swick (1979). Used with permission of the authors, Dimensions, and The Southern Association on Children Under Six.

References

Flake_Hobson, C., and Swick, K. (1979). Communication strategies for parents and teachers, or how to say what you mean. Dimensions, 7, 112-115.

Miller, S., Nunnally, E. W., and Wackman, D. (1975). Alive and aware. Minneapolis: Interpersonal Communication Programs, Inc.

Paper 32

Recruitment, Selection, and Orientation of Staff

SACC staff members must be selected with caution. The hiring process should consider the nature and scope of program operation as well as the SACC philosophy. Staff must be willing and capable of working the long and rigorous hours that a SACC program demands. Recruitment should match the qualifications and interests of staff with the SACC philosophy. A good SACC administrator looks for individuals, regardless of background, who have unique talents that will contribute to the richness of the program--a particular skill that can be shared with children on a daily basis. The recruitment process reflectes the program priorities, values, and philosophy and the type of personnel hired makes a strong statement about the program to others.

Steps in the Recruitment Process

Once it has been determined that hiring will proceed, the following steps can be followed in the recruitment process (adapted from Streets, 1982, pp 270-89):

1. Prepare a job description. A job description must be developed for each position that is open. It should concisely state the primary function of the position, the major duties, training required, experience, personal characteristics desired, where in the program structure the position fits, and salary and benefits. All legal requirements and constraints should be carefully researched before job descriptions are written.

2. Determine the time frame and decision-making process. A final application date should be specified to applicants. Also the date at which positions will become vacant should be announced, along with the order of steps for applying. A clear understanding of who will participate in the hiring process must also be predetermined. Will the SACC administrator do everything? Or will SACC staff, parents, or higher administrative officials be involved? How will the final decision be made and who will make it?

3. Recruitment of Program Staff. Job notices or announcement of vacancies are posted or published in a variety of places: newspapers, newsletters, public and private schools, unemployment services, special interest groups (such as civic clubs), colleges and professional organizations.

4. Application Process. Once applications are received, they can be screened and interview questions can be formulated. Interviews are scheduled with candidates for the position.

5. Selection of staff. The selection step determines which candidates will be interviewed and their references are checked at this point.

6. Conducting the interview. During the interview, applicants are encouraged to respond to such questions as:

- What is most important to you about a school in which you work?
- What strengths would you bring to the position of teacher (assistant, aide, and so on) here?
- What would you do if a child...?
- What do you want to be doing professionally in five years? (Streets, 1982, p. 284)

Interviews should be scheduled at intervals that give enough time to gain information about applicants and to get a "feel" for their personality and attitudes. SACC administrators should also be prepared to receive questions from prospective employees. Their questions deserve adequate responses. Good questions from applicants are, in fact, reflections of job interest and motivation and might help screen those candidates who are genuinely interested in the job from those who will take whatever comes along.

7. Making the final selection. Once all interviews are complete, those personnel who conducted the interviews begin to evaluate the candidates by previously-determined criteria. These criteria are drawn from the job descriptions and the characteristics desired for program staff.

8. Offering Employment. Once the final decision has been made, an offer is made to the best candidate. This can be done by mail or by telephone. Unsuccessful candidates should be notified by mail that they were not accepted for the position.

Orientation Process

Once the selected applicant has accepted the position and reported for work, an orientation to the program is necessary. All new employees should receive an overview to the program before beginning work. Regardless of the credentials and experience of the SACC leader, orientation makes for a smooth-running program. Every program is different -- sometimes in small ways and sometimes in big ways. New employees should be familiarized with the daily operating routines, philosophy, equipment, and procedural requirements of the program. Orientation can be achieved on an individual basis where only one person is being hired or on a group basis as when a new program is opening and several persons require orientation.

Many SACC programs have orientation packets that are given to new employees and that are used on an individual, self-paced schedule. Using prepared orientation manuals or packets, ensures that new SACC leaders get uniform information and takes a substantial burden off SACC administrators who must contend with the everyday workings of the program.

Once SACC leaders have been oriented to the program, some type of ongoing staff development is essential to keep workers abreast of new ideas and changes in the field of school-age child care. Seaver and Cartwright (1986) discuss the importance of updating program staff.

> The agency may periodically schedule orientation 'updates' to keep everyone current and accurate. New caregivers may be assigned to experienced caregivers in a variation of the buddy system, or small contact circles of caregivers may be formed to help disseminate information. Agencies need to recognize that once the big push of orientation training is over, caregivers still need information about administrative procedures. This need is rarely enough to warrant a full-scale training meeting, but there will be errors and difficulties that can undermine efficient operation unless some attention is given to maintaining accurate procedures. (p. 211).

In addition to updating of administrative concerns, staff should be encouraged to attend seminars, workshops, and conferences that will contribute to their expertise in working with school-age children. These types of in-service training often require travel to other towns or even states where the training is held. Another form of continued training is the ongoing scheduling of workshops on site where the program is run by drawing from expertise in the community. This reduces expensive travel fees yet still provides the type of renewed orientation that staff need.

Recruiting, selecting, and orienting staff are processes that serve as building blocks for a sound SACC program. The SACC administrator who oversees these processes in a viable way will lay the cornerstone for a quality program for school-age youngsters.

References

Seaver, J.W., Cartwright, C.A.(1986). Child Care Administration. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Streets, D. (1982). Administering day care and preschool programs. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Module 4

Unit 1

Activity 29

Activities Module Four: Unit One

Write a one page essay on the qualities you believe a good SACC administrator should possess. How would you measure up? Include those areas where you would need to strengthen your skills. Use Paper 30 as a guide in this exercise.

Module 4

Unit 1

Activity 30

Using the following scenario, write how you would respond using one or more of the four styles of communication discussed in Paper 31:

> An irate parent bursts into your office, complaining that she thinks your SACC curriculum is a waste of time. "I spend good money to send my child to this program and I want to get my money's worth! Why don't you sit these children down and teach them something besides just letting them play all the time?"

Module 4

Unit 1

Activity 31

Assume you are in charge of developing criteria that will be used to determine which of three finalists will be selected for a vacant SACC leader's position.

1. Prepare a job description.
2. Determine who will make the final selection.
3. List the questions you would pose during the interview.
4. List what criteria would be used in the final selection.

Discussion Guide J

A. Allow at least 1 hour for this discussion. Bring your written plan from Activity 29 in which you used communication styles to respond to the parent's demands. Divide into four groups, each taking a different communication style. Then role plan for the large group how you would respond to the parent based on the communication style that you were assigned. Discuss the major points that emerged from the role play.

B. Allow at least 1 hour for this discussion. In a large group share the four assignments from Activity 30, regarding the recruitment and selection process. Using magic markers and flip charts, combine individual responses into a total group list (using the best responses from the group) on the four areas assigned.

1. A job description
2. Who makes the final selection
3. List of questions for the interview
4. Criteria for selection of staff person

Module 4

Unit 1

Further Reading

Baden, R., Genser, A., Leving, J., and Seligson, M. (1982). *School-age child care: An action manual*. Dover MA: Auburn House. This book contains an informative section on what makes a good SACC administrator. It also has discussions on the hiring process, how to design and implement your own hiring process, and staffing the program.

Miller, S., Nunnally, E. W. and Wackman, D.B. (1975). *Alive and aware*. Minneapolis MN: Interpersonal Communication Programs, Inc. This book gives an in-depth treatment of the four communication strategies discussed in this unit: the superficial, command, intellectual, and caring styles.

Streets, D. (1982). *Administering day care and preschool programs*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon. This book has an excellent chapter on recruitment and selection of personnel. It provides a step-by-step process of recruitment, selection and employment.

UNIT TWO: HOW TO MANAGE THE PROGRAM

Introduction/Instructions

The effectiveness of the administration of a SACC Program rests largely on the administrator's ability to manage efficiently all aspects of the program. The word administration means "to serve" and in school-age child care the central purpose of management is to promote optimal growth and development of all those who are part of the endeavor.

The ability to mobilize resources and to provide leadership to staff and others is essential to the survival and quality of the program. Unit Two addresses management's role in selecting personnel and delegating responsibilities and in establishing a system of supervision and accountability. Fiscal management is discussed and basic procedures that all programs should observe are suggested for a sound fiscal base.

Unit Two concludes with plans for promoting the school-age child care program. The purpose of the program, its underlying philosophy, and the ways these are communicated are essential for maintaining high standards and quality programming.

To work through the unit:

- Read paper 33. Identify additional open-ended questions that would be appropriate in interviewing prospective teachers and leaders.
- Complete Activity 32. Be prepared to role play an interview session in your group.
- Read Paper 34.

- Complete Activity 34, which is designed to help you formulate a reasonable budget plan and to raise questions about fiscal management.
- Read Paper 35.
- Complete Activity 33, which is designed to help you think about planning and promoting an enriching SACC program.
- Work through Discussion Guide K.

PAPER 33

Personnel

The administrator of a school-age child care program must proceed with confidence in selecting and utilizing the collective energies of the staff to accomplish the goals and objectives of the program. The recruitment of staff and the evaluation of their progress must reflect the purpose and philosophy of the program to ensure success.

Certain preliminary decisions must be made related to staffing. A job description stating the primary functions of the position, major responsibilities, training, experiential and personal characteristics desired, and other clarifying information must be developed. Whan a program is connected with another administrative unit (i.e., a school system, YMCA Board of Directors, City or County Governments, etc.) personnel practices must be adapted for use in that unit's employment process.

All legal requirements and constraints need to be carefully researched. Any licensing stipulations as to age of staff and educational qualifications must be in accord with state and local laws and policies.

Characteristics of desired school-age child care staff include the following:

1. Knowledge of the developmental characteristics of school-age children (5-12 years old);
2. Ability to organize activities and projects appropriate for the age-level characteristics of the chldren;
3. Emotionally stable and able to maintain consistent practices and predictable behaviors;

4. Committed to the beliefs and philosophy of the program;
5. Positive self-concept and appreciation of designated staff role;
6. Warm and caring; creative and emphatic;
7. Compatible with other staff and able to work harmoniously;
8. Adaptable, flexible, and ability to adjust to change;
9. Possesses good communication skills; and,
10. Enjoys a sense of humor.

Examples of personnel descriptions and qualifications which were created for the Charlotte-Mecklenburg School-Age Child Care Project include:

Title: Site Director/Principal

Supervisor: Program Director

Duties: Each SACC Project site will have a site director. The site director will be responsible for overall management and supervision of the site. Duties will include direction of all site staff to ensure SACC Project policy and procedures are followed. In addition, the site director will serve on and be responsible for securing parent representatives for the Site Steering Committee, maintaining records appropriate to the SACC Project, conducting weekly meetings for staff and volunteers and planning and coordinating activities for children.

Qualifications: Professional preparation for working with school age children; sensitivity and maturity to relate to both children and adults; demonstrated ability to provide leadership; willingness to follow and maintain SACC Project policy and procedures.

Title: Leader/Teacher

Supervisor: Site Director

Duties: The leader/teacher will be responsible for implementing the daily program under the direction of the site director. This will include planning for an enriched environment through such things as the development of interest centers and field trips. In addition, the leader/teacher will help with general housekeeping tasks and supervise activities.

Qualifications: Professional training in working with school age children; display sensitivity to the needs of others; ability to relate well to children; willingness to follow and maintain the SACC Project policy and procedures.

Title: Assistant Teacher/Aide

Supervisor: Leader/Teacher

Duties: The aide will assist the leader/teacher in planning a program of activities and help supervise the children during program hours. Aides will attend pre-service and in-service training. Aides will do related work as required and act as leader/teacher when that person is not present.

Qualifications: Must be eighteen years of age; some college preferred but a high school graduate with demonstrated successful related experience will be considered; ability to work effectively with children and staff; ability to communicate with children and staff and to understand and carry out both oral and written communications.

Title: Student Aides

Supervisor: Leader/Teacher

Duties: The Student Aide will assist the program staff by helping to supervise the children during program hours and helping to keep the children safe and happy. Student Aides will be expected to attend in-service training activities planned by the Program Coordinator.

Qualifications: Minimum of 16 years of age; ideally, completion of a child development course at the high school level is preferred; ability to communicate and work with children and staff.

Title: Student Teachers/Interns

Supervisor: Leader/Teacher

Duties: College or high school students who need an "internship" or are in a work-study program can be called upon for part-time and/or special program efforts. Because they are considered short-term they should be given limited responsibilities and be assigned to work as deemed appropriate by their on-site and school/college supervisors.

Qualifications: Must be recommended by the school and/or college supervisor and clarify internship or work-study goals and objectives.

Title: Volunteers

Supervisor: Leader/Teacher

Duties: Volunteers will provide limited assistance to the SACC Project staff in conducting their daily activities. Duties might include helping plan and/or conduct activities and field trips, assisting in the development of materials, and helping with general housekeeping tasks. Volunteers can be assigned increasing amounts of responsibility as the Leader/Teacher is able to assess the particular volunteer's strengths and weaknesses.

Qualifications: Retired persons, parents, students, or other persons 18 years of age or older could be volunteers. Ideally, volunteers will have had some training and/or experience in working with school-age children. All volunteers will be screened to insure they have the interest and skills to work effectively with children.

Selecting staff is the process for determining the most capable individuals for working with the children. The number of children will determine the number of staff needed. When the focus of school-age child care is enrichment, persons are needed who are flexible in their thinking and who can provide innovative and novel activities. There are many ways for interviewing and for determining which persons can best meet the desired qualifications. A strategy which has proved effective includes asking open-ended questions about specific employment issue such as:

- What kind of environment is important for children in programs during out-of-school days and hours?
- What strengths would you bring to the position for which you are applying?
- Why did you decide to become a school-age child care teacher or leader?

- (The reader is encouraged to pose several open-ended questions which reflect a specific program)

Once the staff has been selected the administrator functions as the instructional leader. The role is multi-faceted and includes knowledge of curriculum, consulting and working with parents and volunteers, developing a program plan, delegating responsibilities, supervising, and evaluating the impact of the program on children and the community. Equally important is knowledge of the growth and development of school-age children. In essence the role is that of coordinating a support system in which children are a mutual concern.

Cooperation is essential to a productive team effort. Each staff member should be encouraged to support the others in all endeavors. Through coordination and scheduling an administrator can facilitate different groups and individuals in collaborating on an activity or event.

In working with the staff the administrator creates an atmosphere of trust and competence. Responsibilites should be clearly defined and assigned to specific positions. The staff need to know what is expected of each one and what will be accepted as demonstrable evidence of successful performance. When responsibilities are given, the authority required to carry them out must be assured.

Cooperation is essential to a productive team effort. Each staff should be encouraged to support the other in all endeavors. Through coordination and scheduling an administrator can facilitate different groups and individuals in collaborating on an activity or event.

an activity or event.

Staff members appreciate genuine appraisal. For the most part they want to uphold the standards of the program. It follows that expectations must be realistic and that objectives and standards are clear. Staff members need a system for feedback. They need opportunities to discuss their roles and responsibilities and the impact their efforts have on the program. Growing people appreciate recommendations for improvement and welcome positive suggestions and support.

The administrator should keep a file on each staff member in the program. The file should contain performance evaluations, a record of training programs that staff have completed, objectives and standards of work agreed upon, summaries of consultations, and any other pertinent correspondence or records. The file is an important source of information and will help in the process of planning and goals setting.

In conclusion, one note of caution should be raised. Although the data are not conclusive, there is growing agreement that full-time teachers may not be the best possible choice for these out-of-school hours. Specifically, evidence of burn-out appears when teachers and children have no rehabilitating time to renew energy and zest. Efforts should be made to provide a diverse staff that reflects the make-up of the community. There should be both men and women, different ages and races, and varied ethnic backgrounds.

Paper 34

Budgeting and Fiscal Management

Proper fiscal management is essential to any SACC program's success. Fiscal management requires the establishment of a coherent set of managerial procedures and careful compliance with them to ensure that the financial base of the program is sound. This aspect of the program is critical and if not properly designed can result in failure

All programs should observe basic fiscal management procedures. Plans for establishing the desired components of the program and how they will be accomplished will, by necessity, include how the program is to be financed. The first step in program funding is the identification of funding sources. Government sources, private sector funding, parent fees, and in-kind contributions make up the bulk of most school-age child care programs. Groups who use the program along with those who are genuinely concerned about children and their welfare can often suggest creative funding and resourcing. Community organizations should be tapped for special program offerings and shared resources. Industries and businesses contribute by providing added incentives for the working parents in their employement.

The development and management of an annual budget is the second step. The budget process requires the active participation of all staff. The basic rule is to balance income against costs. The major item in any SACC program budget is the personnel category and includes salaries and wages, fringe benefits, and contract and consultant services. The second portion of the budget deals with non-personnel expenditures and includes program components such as supplies, food, transportation, field trips, insurance, staff training, space, and miscellaneous.

The budget must be monitored on a regular basis. Expenses that are fixed should be determined and those that may flucuate can be curtailed if there is a need to keep the budget in balance. A sample budget worksheet is included in Activity 34. Develop your budget on the basis of the fewest possible participants required for the program. Make projections of the minimum number of participants plus 25% and 50% enrollment to asceratin the increases that are possible.

Ways to save money include using trained volunteers and providing internships and practicum experiences for high school and college students. Senior adults can add to the program as well as persons who want to share their talents and hobbies on a short-term basis. Collaborative efforts with other community organizations and programs can bring enrichment on a minimal cost basis when resources and events are shared.

Step three in the process is the setting of reasonable fees. The fees should reflect the estimated cost per participant. Scholarships and sliding scales of payment should be available to those children whose families cannot pay all or some of the costs.

Collection of fees should be carefully monitored and schedules for payment clearly stated. Penalities for late payment can be established and warning to parents may be necessary. Parents should be made aware of the tax advantages of school-age child care. Workshops for parents and orientation sessions are good vehicles for helping parents to be better informed. Each program can address these needs through a Parent Committee which helps to establish policies and procedures.

Finally it is important to remember that the budget is a plan. For a program that works, the plan must be monitored daily, and changes and corrections should be made only when absolutely necessary. The administrator is accountable for the fiscal results of the program. Establishing controls to limit spending, developing plans to increase income, revising the budget when appropriate, and formulating a plan to handle cash flow is an ongoing process which calls for critical analysis and evaluation.

Paper 35

Promotion and Dealing with the Public

Taking action for school-age children who need care outside of the home during non-school hours is a timely and exciting endeavor. The latchkey pehnomenon is recognized nationwide as a significant and pressing problem for children and their families from all walks of life.

Latchkey children's needs are so great and so varied that no one solution or program will suffice. Most communities need more than one type of service or program. The opportunities for profit and non-profit groups to offer needed services are limitless.

Communities vary in the way they regard and respond to children's needs. In some cases the number of services available to children and their families far exceeds the degree of quality offered. In an attempt to exploit care for gain, shortcuts are taken and poorly trained staff are employed. To compound matters parents appear to be ambivalent when it comes to self-care and safety. Many parents do not have the background or experience to judge with confidence the benefits of existing programs.

How, then, does a high-quality program with well trained staff gain public recognition? What are the most expedient ways of promoting a program's goals and purposes? How can a program effectively communicate its philosophy and modes of operation?

Everyone who comes in contact with a school-age child care program needs to know its purposes. Of particular interest are the immediate and long-range benefits for children and working parents.

To publicize a SACC program takes imagination and creativity. A "publicity campaign" can help programs gain needed recognition and respect. The following ideas have been used to increase community awareness as well as to help parents and others become better informed about meeting the needs of school-age children.

1. Use media publicity. Television spots, newspapers, radio spots, and brochures can focus on program benefits and goals.
2. Plan a sequence of community events. Take the necessary steps to proclaim a "School-Age Child Care Awareness Week." Meet with civic clubs, parent groups, and others to talk about your program.
3. Design a flyer to attract children to the program as well as to inform parents about its benefits.
4. Place flyers or posters in department and grocery stores, in doctor's offices, at the Public Library, etc.
5. Explain the program through the satisfied customer. Children and their families will tell of their satisfactions as well as their disappointments.
6. Develop a newsletter to promote each phase of the program.
7. Show genuine interest in the children and families in the program. Take their criticisms and incorporate them into your planning.

8. Run a first-class program. Carefully monitor staff and activities. Take steps to ensure the quality of the environment and maintenance of the highest standards.

9. Involve volunteers in an on-going training program.

10. Assume the role of advocate for children addressing the total needs of care. Create ways for providing care for handicapped children, for before- and after-school hours, during vacations, and on holidays.

In conclusion, it is important to publicize the benefits of school-age child care programs. Not only is there peace of mind for working parents and a safety net for the children, but there is also evidence of improvement in children's self-esteem, academic achievement, and attitudes toward education in general. Communities, families and children all stand to benefit from high-quality school-age child care.

General References

Module 4

Unit 2

Steinfels, M. O. (1973). *Who's minding the children?* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Streets, D. T. (1982). *Administering day care and preschool programs*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

YMCA of the USA. (1982). *YMCA school-age child care*. Rosement, ILL: Program Resources.

Module 4

Unit 2

Activity 32

Roleplay a performance appraisal process whereby an employee's work is evaluated on a formal basis. The formal review is one way of documenting most of the aspects of an employee's performance over a defined period of time. In no way is the performance appraisal to take the place of on-going review and evaluation. Staff need frequent and accurate feedback and the monitoring of performance on a day-to-day basis.

Module 4

Unit 2

Activity 33

Create a Start-up Check List which can be used in planning a new program. Be sure to include ways to determine needs, a promotion plan, policies and procedures, curriculum divisions, safety rules and procedures, a record keeping system, etc. Be prepared to share your check list with your group.

Module 4

Unit 2

Activity 34

Prepare a Program Budget using the Budget Worksheet. Develop your budget on the basis of the fewest participants required for the program. Use the projection columns to estimate costs and income at minimum plus 25% and at minimum plus 50%. Then develop the actual budget based on the projected number of children to be enrolled. Complete the Budgeted Income section. Balance the Expenditure section with the Income section.

Sample Child Care Budget Worksheet

Expense Items		This Year's Minimum Budget	+25% Enrollment	+50% Enrollment	This Year's Actual
A. Personnel Salaries					
1. Site Director/ Principal					
2. Leaders/ Teachers					
3. Benefits					
4. Contracts and Consultant Serv.					
B. Non Personnel Program					
1. Supplies					
2. Food					
3. Transportation					
4. Field Trips					
5. Insurance					
6. Staff Training					
7. Space					
8. Miscellaneous					

BUDGETED INCOME

A. Grants	
B. Cash Donations	
C. Fees	
D. Other (itemize)	
E. In-Kind	
Total Budgeted Income	

Discussion Guide K

A. Allow at least one hour for this discussion. Bring your Start-up Check List and your budget workshop sheet with you.

Compare your Check List in Activity 33. What are the items most frequently suggested by the group? Are there areas or items which have been omitted? Revise your Check List to include the thinking of the group.

Arrange to meet with a Director or Principal of a School-Age Child Care Program who can serve as a consultant to the group and answer questions which have arisen from the development of the Check-List and the preparation of the budget.

B. Allow at least one half hour for this small group activity. Select an observer, a supervisor, an employee, and carry out the role plan described in Activity 32.

Further Readings

Robinson, B. E., Rowland, B. H., & Coleman, M. (in preperation). Latchkey kids: Unlocking doors for children and their parents. Lexington, MA: D. G. Heath. This book has a special chapter on administrators and their roles in regard to latchkey children and SACC programs.

Seaver, J. W., & Cartwright, C. A. (1986). Child care administration. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth. This entire book is devoted to the child care administrator. While all chapters are relevant, a special chapter deals with the school-age child care director.

Unit Three: Day-To-Day Operation

Introduction/Instructions

In order for a SACC program to operate efficiently, there are certain tasks that must be dealt with on a day-to-day basis. These factors ensure that both a safe and enriching program are maintained. In short, it is these factors that form the core check points by which to gauge the success of a SACC program at any given point. In this unit we will address five such factors involved in the day-to-day operation of a SACC program: (a) Designing the Curriculum and Activities; (b) Facilities; (c) Health and Safety; (d) Transportation; (e) Evaluation.

To work through the unit:

* Read Paper 36
* Complete Activity 35
* Read Papers 37, 38, and 39
* Complete Activity 36
* Read Paper 40
* Complete Activity 37
* Work through the items in Discussion Guide L with your study group.

Curriculum Design and School Age Child Care*

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Curriculum theory is the combination of beliefs about people, their nature, and their social interactions. It encompasses what we know about the world which seeks to guide and predict human growth and development. Whenever we seek to influence another individual's choices we are implementing a curriculum based upon some curriculum theory. We will encourage the reader to consider their reasons for the curriculum decisions they make. Finally, a curriculum theory for school-age child care will be discussed.

What is the role of curriculum theory in school-age child care? We frequently think of curriculum as what goes on in a school. This is only partially true. Curriculum is what goes on whenever one individual is trying to influence the learning, decisions, or values of another. After-school child care can seek to be solely custodial or it can seek to be an extended positive influence in the lives of both the children and the care givers. This influence can either be planned and intended or haphazard, but planned curriculum is much more likely to be effective in achieving program goals.

There are a number of definitions of curriculum. Some define it in terms of the plans that have been made and view the curriculum as a document which should guide the practices of those who implement it. Others define curriculum in terms of

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activities which are carried out, in effect a recipe book. Still others define it in terms of the "experiences" that individuals have. Experiences are activities that a person engages in and the meaning that the individual attaches to the activities. One can view plans as a future orientation, activities as a present focus and experiences as a past accomplishment.

There is virtually an unlimited number of things which can happen in after school child care. Certainly, there are more opportunities than can ever take place in any one program. The problem for those in charge is deciding what results they want (plans) what activities will take place (activities), and what benefits they want the youngsters to derive from them (experiences). These decisions are based on values and beliefs in certain specific areas.

Curriculum is a dynamic process of decision-making. It consists of adults making decisions about the most successful ways to influence the learning and values of children and working with these children to accomplish the task. Of necessity, the plans must be changed based upon unforseen circumstances of time, place, and individuals. Changing plans while the plan is in process requires that the curriculum planner and implementer share the same values and beliefs which guide curriculum decision-making.

The areas in which beliefs must be confronted in developing of a curriculum theory and, later, a curriculum include the areas of social values, psychological aspects of growth and learning, and the structure of knowledge. Each of these areas addresses a vital concern in understanding the process of human growth and development. Although they have been separated for the purposes of explanation and understanding, the distinctions are not clear-cut. Neither area exists in isolation from the others. Indeed, the boundaries between them are like the boundaries of a cloud. They are easy to see from a distance, but the closer one looks the more indistinct the boundary becomes.

The first area of concern to the after-school child care planner is that of social values. Any child care center is a social institution which is designed to accomplish certain goals set by society and expressed by its leaders who control policy and budget. Workers in the setting should have formulated answers to the following types of questions. What are the purposes of the after-school center? What role does it serve in society? What is its responsibility to its service group? What should be its relationship to the school and the family? What should it have in common with these two units and how should it be different? How should the child be different for having received after-school child care? Unlike the other areas requiring decisions,these are not questions which have a body of common agreement based on research. These are, in fact, questions whose answers are highly situational and frequently hotly debated. The reader is invited to seek the answers in the individual setting. Later in this paper some generalizations about what the author thinks the answers might or should be will be offered. For now, it is important that we know what the questions are.

The second area of consideration is learning. There are a number of questions about learning which each caregiver must have answered. The nature of the answers will control the individual's approach to the youngsters they serve. The reader is referred to the contemporary literature on growth and development for greater exploration of these key concepts. An in- depth discussion of these areas is beyond the scope of this paper. The purpose here is to introduce those areas which are important in decision-making.

Orientation toward the child is the first of these. One may view youngsters as simply little adults. The assumption here is that the only difference between the two groups is size. This is perhaps one of the most common mistakes made by those in the field of education. We assume that children deal with their world the way adults do, that they learn in the same way adults do, that they are motivated by the same desires and values, and that they only need practice at being adults.

There is a large body of research to indicate that children and adults are fundamentally different in their orientation to the world. Adults live in a world of ideas, symbols and abstractions. Children live in a world of concrete objects. Adults have largely decided how to gain new information and how to decide when it is true. Children are just beginning to seek and understand these relationships. The adult world is well differentiated and classified. Children are just beginning to explore these classification and differentiation schemes. Knowledge of how children see, build, and use their world is vitally important for those who would influence that world.

Motivation is a second concept that is of great importance to the child caregiver. Motivation is that inner drive to accomplish something, that reason for doing what we do. The drive to do is innate in human beings. It is not something which others provide for us or do to us. Motivation feeds on success. We tend to want to do those things which we think we can do. When we find we are successful we are more likely to want to do them again. These things don't have to be easy; in fact, we are more likely to do them again if they are not easy.

Another innate characteristic of the human being is to seek challenge. We are challenged when we want to do something and think we can. Every challenge does not lead to successful accomplishment, but it does lead to more knowledge about ourselves and our world. The environment must contain challenges and one of the roles of adults in the world of children is to provide an environment rich in safe challenges.

Currently there are two schools of psychology which view the phenomenon we call learning and explain it from two different viewpoints. Associationists tend to view learning as change in observable behavior. They see the learner as a reward-seeking organism who learns in order to earn rewards. The crucial role in determining learning is therefore outside the individual; it is in the hands of those who control the environment. If we can determine the rewards an individual seeks and get control of these rewards, we are then in control of that individual's learning. We can make them learn what we want them to.

Perceptualists, on the other hand, view learning as a change in meaning for the individual. That is to say, we have learned when we see things in a different relationship. The learner chooses to respond to various aspects of his environment. Although subject to influence by circumstances and individuals in the environment, the ultimate decision is made by the individual. The key difference is between being controlled by and being influenced by; in short, the locus of choice. The perceptualist viewpoint is that one is more in control of one's own destiny.

If we assume the nature of the child is to inquire into and to seek to make sense of the surroundings, it becomes clear that the strongest influence we have available is the environment itself. Through our control of the environment we make it more or less likely for certain things to happen. For instance, if we want children to learn responsibility and respect for living things, we may introduce one or more hamsters into the room. This will get the attention of most of the children and provide incentive to explore the relationships we would like to see them explore. We can then influence the direction and implications of this exploration.

One of the most influential aspects of the environment is the adults present. Frymier (1965, p.50) wrote "When a student is in a classroom, he really perceives two things; the ideas which the teacher is attempting to communicate, represented by the book, and the kind of person that the teacher is himself, including what he thinks." The behaviors, attitudes, and values which we model are those that children are most likely to learn as part of their developing character and personality.

Once we have decided that it is important that children learn something from their after-school child care experience and have made some decisions about how we think they learn, it becomes important to attend to the nature of what it is we wish them to learn.

One of the key issues is our view of where knowledge comes from. Michelangelo is supposed to have said that he sought blocks of marble with statues in them and he chipped away the rest of the stone. This is quite a different view from that of the artist who says "I take unrelated materials and put them together in a way that gives them new meaning." For our purposes the question becomes "Does the child create his understanding of the world or do we simply pass along the right understandings which were passed along to us?"

As a matter of convenience and organizaton we have separated our accumulated knowledge into related areas we call disciplines. It is difficult to overemphasize the impact this arbitrary organization has had on teaching. Almost every school and college in the country uses the disciplinary structure as the foundation of their organization. A disciplinary approach to organization of information leads to an emphasis on specialization. While this may be appropriate at the level of higher education, it clearly is not the ideal structure for the purposes of general education sought for the young child.

The elementary years, particularly kindergarten through third grade, are viewed as years in which the most important learnings have to do with developing the skills necessary for later learning. From this point on the structure is essentially to treat learning by separating it along disciplinary lines and require that youngsters pursue what has been called the spiral curriculum. That is the same disciplines are studied each year with each visitation increasing the breadth and depth of study in the discipline.

The second common way of organizing learning experiences is based upon the belief that there are a number of concepts which are important for all children to learn. These concepts are usually selected either on the basis of their universality or their extreme importance to society. For example, the concept of justice is vital to every society. These key concepts are learned without regard to their disciplinary nature. That is to say, they are taught and learned broadly and not confined to the study of social studies. The nature of knowledge is such that the study of one concept leads to the study of others which relate to it. Curriculum, therefore, becomes highly subject to selection and organization by the teacher or organizaton and more specifically related to the group and culture being served.

With all the alternatives available to the after-school child care provider it might be useful to suggest some guidelines to shape curriculum theory and ultimately curriculum design and implementation decisions. The following are offered as general guides. The specific content and structure are left to individual caregivers.

First, a major role of after-school child care is clearly custodial. The intent is to provide a safe environment for children that is better than what they would have without the child care service. A second implication of the better environment concept is that after school child care will also provide for optimum growth of each youngster. The care is being provided at a time in the life of the child when growth is inevitable. The only options we have are to take advantage of this and contribute to the nature and extent of the growth, to ignore it, or to try to prevent it. Clearly the latter choice is impossible and the second is foolish and does a disservice to both society and the individual.

After-school child care is not home, neither should it try to be a direct extension of the school. It must seek to be supportive of both. In one sense it can be a sort of "half way house" seeking to provide a transition from the highly structured, group setting of the school to the smaller, more individualized setting of the home. The after-school center need not answer to the school for accomplishing academic instruction of the youngster nor to the home for meeting many highly individualized personal needs of each youngster. It must, however, answer to both for facilitating the accomplishment of the special tasks of each. It must work in concert with both by providing safe physical and psychological care of the youth who are of importance to all.

After-school child care should be a special place for the children who are there. The setting can encourage the development of social skills and provide broad learning opportunities. The strengths upon which a program can be built are the mixed age groupings of the children, the staff to student ratio, and the lack of "academic pressures" which accompany schooling. The scope of learning is not prescribed and therefore not restrictive. What we have is another opportunity for youngsters to learn with to what is available to be learned limited only by the imagination of the staff and the interests of the youngsters.

Activities should be selected based on overall goals and purposes of the center, developmental level of the youngsters being served, strengths and interests of the staff, available community resources and breadth of opportunity. A wide "mix" of opportunity is important. Some should be social, an opportunity to be alone, to just chat with others, to do homework, etc. Some should be physical: games, walks, exercise, dance, etc. Still others should be educational: trips to local points of interest, visitors, arts and crafts, story or film time, etc. The important concept which should never be lost sight of is that almost all should be opportunities, not requirements. It should be an invitational program: children should choose what they do.

In an invitational program the key to involvement is having a wide variety of choices. Probably it is wise from both a psychological and management point of view to have some activities that are more or less permanent and form the backbone of the program and a second group of activities that change each week.

For those activities that are ongoing, levels of achievement can be useful in setting challenges for youngsters. The intent of the levels of achievement is to set public standards to be met and make public acknowledgement of having met them. The competiton is against the standard, not against other individuals. If standards are established so that the first level allows individuals to do the activity without major supervision from an adult, the second level indicates a proficient level of skill, and the third level indicates high performance in the activity and practice in teaching it to others, such activities become self-sustaining and require a minimum of organization by the caregiver.

A good approach for the non-permanent activities is an event structure. One or more events goes on over a fixed period of time. One or two weeks is a good time plan. Two-week periods that overlap so that one event occurs each week and two are always available seems to be a workable structure. The event might be the celebration of a holiday, a field day, a craft fair, a visit to the animal shelter, a visit to a senior citizens home, etc. The event's crucial ingredients are 1) it is something that any or all can participate in, 2) that the youngsters take a major role in its planning and execution, and 3) that it comes to an end.

A combination of on-going activities plus events provides a combination of stability and change which encourages both the timid and the bold. It allows for the youngster to seek security or change daily according to their individual needs.

In summary, it is important that after-school child care have a well thought out, comprehensive, planned curriculum. This program must be special to youngsters and to caregivers alike. It is not an extension of the home or school. While after-school child care should seek to be neither a continuation of the elementary school learning model or a home away from home, it should complement each. Its special circumstances and characteristics make it unique. Its very uniqueness is its major strength and the major diversity upon which a strong program can be built.

References

Jack Frymier. (1965). The Nature of Educational Method Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

Paper 37

Facilities

Environmental Psychologists have found that our physical surroundings influence our behavior and emotions. For example, very few people could feel productive in a dark and cramped office. The physical facility in which children work and play can influence their behavior. The information that follows should be shared with the SACC staff to ensure a safe, supportive, and enriching environment for children.

Space

The first question that the SACC staff should ask is, "What space will be used?" This question should be followed with, "How should the available space be used?"

Some SACC programs may share a facility with other programs. This may limit the extent to which SACC services can be offered (e.g., limit the number of children enrolled) and/or the type of activities that will be conducted. Administrators and staff members from the different programs will need to work together to develop a schedule that will allow an equal sharing of space and equipment. Certainly, when space is shared staff members will need to return rooms to their original condition immediately upon completion of an activity. Likewise, spills and other mishaps will need to be responded to at once.

SACC programs that do not have to share a facility are fortunate. However, the administrators and staff of these programs will still need to consider the design of their facility in order to plan for an efficient use of space. Activities should conform to the available space, since confusion and even injury can occur when activities are conducted in cramped or overcrowded rooms. The nature of the activities can serve as a guide in determining the amount of space that is needed to safely conduct an activity. Again, with careful planning space can be made available for most activities, even in those facilities with shared or limited space.

Enrichment

All SACC facilites should be inviting and enriching. There are a number of simple and inexpensive things that can be done to achieve this goal. Large oversized pillows placed in a corner of a room can be used for reading, small group discussions, or resting. Throw rugs can make a cold tile floor more inviting. Crates can be used as lockers for children's book and coats. In some facilities it may even be possible to paint the walls or make other permanent changes. Certainly, all facilities should have space available where children's work can be displayed.

Care

The care of the facility is important for a number of reasons. A well cared for facility contributes to the safety of the enrironment for children. One important task for the SACC administrator will be to secure janitorial services. These services may be covered in the SACC budget or they may be contributed as "in kind" services by another agency. If two or more programs occupy the same facility, each may contribute a small amount of money to hire custodial staff. SACC leaders can also serve as role models for children by taking pride in their facility and enlisting the help of children in putting away equipment and picking up paper and other trash left over from previous activities.

Equipment

Not all spaces and equipment will be applicable to all age groups. SACC leaders will need to explain to children which spaces and equipment are to be used only with the guidance of adults. For example, preschoolers should not use gymnastic equipment without the guidance of qualified adults, and even older children will need direction with certain gymnastic activities. Those spaces and equipment that are "off limits" should be put away or roped off. Whatever steps are taken to monitor the use of equipment, care should be taken to allow children a sense of independence and freedom. Too many rules can interfere with children's creativity and sense of exploration. Finally, as with rooms, at the end of an activity all pieces of equipment should be returned to their original spaces. With proper direction, even small children can help in this task.

Summary

Policies regarding the use and maintenance of a SACC facility should proceed as if a piece of art were being considered, since a physical building is, in a way, art. Indeed, buildings give children nonverbal lessons in architecture, mathematics, design, and landscaping. Furthermore, a facility that is well maintained will be safe and will serve as a model for children in their treatment of social spaces and buildings.

Paper 38

Health and Safety

One of the primary goals behind the creation of SACC programs is to ensure that school-age children will be cared for within a safe and healthy environment. To fulfill this goal, SACC staff need to address the following issues.

Basic Health Issues

All SACC staff should be knowledgeable of the health status of children enrolled in their program. A comprehensive health form can be developed that clearly summarizes each child's health status and special health requirements. The local health department can help in developing an acceptable health form. Some issues that will need to be included on the form follow.

Health status. What is the child's general state of health? Are there certain problems that may prevent the child's participation in certain activities? Are there allergies or reactions? The quality of a child's health should be assessed not as a means of screening out those children with health problems but to ensure that the structure and curriculum of the SACC program are responsive to the needs of these children.

Immunizations. Has the child received all proper immunizations? Does the child have an especially high susceptibility to certain common childhood ailments? Does the child have a contagious disease that may unexpectedly reoccur, and if so what are its symptoms? It may be necessary to use certain immunizations as an admission criteria in order to protect the health of other children.

Medications. What special medications does the child require? Does the staff have the expertise to administer these medications. If not, arrangements will need to be made for a nurse to administer the medications.

Emergencies

A medical emergency will inevitably arise in any SACC program. It is important that the staff be trained to directly respond to certain emergencies, and that they be knowledgeable of steps to take in those cases that require professional medical attention.

All staff members should be trained in basic Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation (CPR) and First Aid. Proficiency in these areas will allow staff to respond immediately to minor accidents and potential life-threatening situations. In those situations that require professional medical attention, the health record should be used to determine what steps to take. For example, some parents may request their children be taken to a specific doctor or hospital in a medical emergency. Other parents may request that they be contacted before a medical doctor is contacted. The health record can also be useful if a child has a special health problem that may complicate medical intervention (e.g., reactions to certain medications).

Finally, in some emergencies it may be necessary to ask parents to remove their child from the program. The health record should clearly specify what health conditions (e.g., high temperature, vomiting, etc.) constitute an emergency requiring parental attention and removal of the child.

Environmental Health

To ensure that children are cared for within a healthy environment, the physical facility itself should be inspected according to local and/or state health standards. In most cases such health inspections are carried out on a routine basis. However, if the staff have specific questions or concerns the local or state health department can be contacted for information and a special inspection.

The equipment used within a SACC program also represents a potential source of harm. Staff members should check recreational and educational equipment on a routine basis. Normal wear and tear is expected, but care must be taken to ensure that there are no unusual defects.

Program Activities

Finally, the SACC program activities themselves can in some cases lead to physical harm. Staff who are knowledgeable of child development principles and who are able to translate these principles into a developmentally appropriate curriculum can design a safe and healthy program of activities.

Recreational and physical activities are perhaps the most difficult areas to program. In too many cases, physical activity programs for young children are conducted using an "adult" sport model. That is, the highly structured rules of performance characteristic of organized adult sports are inappropriately transferred to children's games. The emotional harm from these "adult" programs and their philosophy of "win at all costs" is often overshadowed by the bruises and broken bones that result from inappropriate physical performance expectations.

SACC games should be void of unrealistic physical and emotional demands. SACC staff should design activities that meet the social-emotional, physical, and cognitive capabilities of children enrolled in the program. A number of books are available that describe excellent activities for all age groups (see New Games Foundation, 1976; 1981; Orlick, 1978). These books are especially valuable, since many of the noncompetitive games listed in the above books will allow children of different ages and developmental levels to play and learn together without embarrassment.

Summary

Perhaps no other area requires as much detailed planning and day-to-day review as health and safety issues. Through maintaining a healthy and safe environment SACC staff can avoid costly mishaps and ensure that the children enrolled in their program are receiving the best care available.

References

New Games Foundation (1976). The new games book. Garden City, NY: Dolphin.

New Games Foundation (1981). More new games. Garden City, NY: Dolphin.

Orlick, T. (1978). The cooperative sports and games book: Challenge without competition. New York: Pantheon.

Paper 39

Transportation

Transportation represents yet another major obstacle for parents in need of school-age child care. Working parents often lack the flexibility in their work schedules to provide transportation to and from SACC programs. Therefore, administrators and staff must initially decide to what extent transportation services will be provided. Those programs that find it possible to offer transportation will further need to consider safety precautions and operating procedures.

Arranging Transportation

Some SACC programs may be able to network with schools, the city bus system, or another civic or human service agency to provide transportation services. Free transportation for those children enrolled in the SACC program can be promoted as an "in-kind" service that will contribute to the success of the program.

In those cases where transportation cannot be arranged, SACC administrators and staff will need to inform parents of the steps that will be taken when a child has not been delivered to or picked-up from the center, according to set-forth program hours of operation. The SACC staff should encourage parents to seek out their own creative means of transportation. For example, some parents may be able to share transportation duties on alternating weeks. Other parents may arrange a neighborhood before- and after-school walk to and from the SACC program. Still other parents may group together to pay a responsible teenager or adult to provide transporation services.

Safety

All transportation provided by a SACC program should be based on certain safety factors. Written approval from parents should be obtained prior to field trips. Parents should also specify the person or persons who may pick-up their child from the SACC program.

Transportation safety precautions should address SACC drivers, SACC vehicles, and the behavior of children who are transported on SACC vehicles. All SACC drivers should hold up-to-date and appropriate driving licenses from the state and be judged mature and responsible enough to warrant the trust of children and parents. Safety checks of SACC vans and buses are also important to ensure the safe transportation of children. All states have school transportation standards that can be adopted for safety inspections. In many cases, the state will require such inspections.

Finally, clearly stated and enforced guidelines should be set forth relating to the behavior of children who take advantage of SACC transportation services. All parents and children will need to be informed of these guidelines, as well as the criteria for withdrawal of transportation privileges.

Paper 40

Evaluation

Evaluation is a process whereby progress towards the goals and objectives set forth by each SACC center is measured and assessed. Evaluation is a practical part of any community program. It can help in identifying problems and planning for their resolution. Evaluation can also result in the development of new activities and program expansion. In short, evaluation represents a type of "quality assurance" that ensures the survival of a program. The following types of evaluations will be conducted by the Charlotte/Mecklenburg SACC Project.

Evaluation of Training Package Modules (ongoing)

Self-pacing pre- and post-tests based on the objectives of the modules will be used to determine the benefits received from the training package by individual participants. Project consultants will train Program Coordinators to administer the training package and to tabulate the results of these evaluations. Initial training will occur as part of an initial kick-off conference. Thereafter, project consultants will be responsible for ongoing training of new staff and reporting results of the training.

Performance Evaluations (annual)

Performance evaluations will be conducted on all staff. Program Coordinators will evaluate the Site Directors who will in turn evaluate the staff. Probationary evaluations should take place at the end of the first quarter and no later than the end of the first six months of work. It is recommended that continuing staff be evaluated at the end of every year of service. Consultants will design the evaluation forms in collaboration with Program Coordinators. Self-evaluation guidelines will also be developed by consultants and will be completed by each staff member annually to self-assess their contribution to program effectivenes. Administration and tabulation of the self-evaluations will be the responsibility of each Site Director.

Program Operations (annually)

Program Coordinators will prepare a quarterly evaluation of the program operation to show changes in student enrollment. Achieving and maintaining maximum capacity in enrollment numbers in each program will demonstrate that a need is being fulfilled. This report will also contain a summative statement concerned with the overall value of the program and will assess whether the original goals of the program have been (or are being) reached. Moreover, this report will include feedback regarding requests for the addition of needed resources and cost per child. Data will be gathered from program observations by consultants, group evaluation meetings, and individual meetings of school-age child care staff with respective center directors.

Evaluation of Community-Wide Kick-Off Campaign and Conference

A community-wide kick-off campaign will launch the SACC model programs. Methods of evaluation will include feedback and descriptive data that will be measured by the degree of community visibility achieved during the campaign events (newspaper, television, etc.). An evaluation instrument will be designed and administered to assess participants' evaluations of the campaign conference.

Evaluation of Participants' Perceptions of Programs (quarterly for the first year and annually thereafter)

Paper and pencil questionnaires will be administered to parents, children, and staff working in the SACC project programs to assess the effectiveness of programs and to obtain programming feedback. Consultants will design questionnaires and train staff to oversee the adminstration of the questionnaires and to ensure their return. The consultants will also be charged with the tabulation of the responses.

Evaluation of Children Participating in the SACC Project (quarterly or annually)

A major evaluation of the SACC project will be to measure developmental changes in children who participate in the program. This evaluation will be conducted under the immediate supervision of a team of consultants who are trained in research methodology. It is desirable to understand differences in SACC children in the lower grades (K-3) and SACC children in upper grades (4-6), and in SACC children as they were before and after having participated in the SACC project for a period of time.

Variables for study include academic achievement (measured by such tests as the California Achievement Test, or other tests, as well as grades); locus of control (measured by the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Test): self-concept (measured by the Personal Attribute Inventory for Children); social skills (measured by class room teacher's ratings, parents' observations, and peer evaluations) parent-child relationships (assessed by the

Cornell Parent Behavior Instrument); and anxiety levels (assessed by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children).

Evaluations by Classroom Teachers (annually)

Since classroom teachers spend a major portion of the day with children, they can be valuable resources in evaluating any outward effects of the SACC project upon children. Consultants will randomly select a sample of children participating in the SACC project for inclusion in this portion of the evaluation Teachers will complete rating forms regarding changes in attitudes, behavior and academic achievement of SACC children over time. Such questions as "How does the self-concept, schoolwork and social skills of SACC children compare with those of children you've had previously who have not had these services?" will be asked. Each child's teacher will be surveyed over a three-year period.

Activities: Module 4 - Unit Three

Module 4
Unit 3
Activity 35

Divide your study group into two subgroups. The first subgroup should design a curriculum for 30, 7-9 year olds who are in a recreation type program. There are 10 physically handicapped children in your program. The second subgroup should design a curriculum for 30, 9-12 year olds who are also in a recreation type program. There are 7 gifted children and 5 children who have periodic seizures in your program.

Module 4
Unit 3
Activity 36

Remain in your subgroups. Each subgroup should now address the types of facilities and transportation, as well as the health and safety standards, that will be needed for their particular program and subgroup of children.

Module 4
Unit 3
Activity 37

Remain in your subgroups. Each subgroup should use their same special population of children to list 10 important performance criteria they think the staff and volunteers working in their respective programs should be evaluated on. Give the reasons behind your performance criteria.

Discussion Guide L

You should allow at least 30 minutes for this discussion. Bring your activity notes and have papers 36, 37, 38, 39, and 40 ready for reference. Encourage your colleagues to express their opinions.

1. The two subgroups should present their respective programs. Discuss the similarities and differences in the two programs. Feel free to make suggestions for improvement.

2. The two subgroups should present and compare their respective lists of performance criteria. Discuss the similarities and differences between the two lists.

Further Readings

Module 4
Unit 3

Baden, R. K., Genser, A., Levine, L. A., & Seligson, M. (1982). *School-age child care: An action manual*. Dover, MA: Auburn House.

A comprehensive text that deals with all aspects of operating a SACC program. Concrete examples are given using existing programs that can be of practical assistance to those planning or administering a SACC program.